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LITERARY MAGAZINE,
AND
AMERICAN REGISTER.

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SEPTEMBER. 1807

VOL. VIII.

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VOL. VIII.

FOR THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.

THE OLIO.

NO. V.

On Credulity.

It is an incontestible truth, that the faculties of the human mind are easily perverted by education, or false opinions. Yet such is the innate principle of the soul, we cannot but consider the credulity of some of our species with astonishment. Even those who may be ranked amongst the wisest of men have been addicted to absurdities, and all are distinguished for certain peculiarities.

It is unnecessary to launch out into metaphysical argumentation on the cause of those contrarieties which render man a curious composition.

Indeed such a proceeding borders on impiety; for why question the immutable appointment of Him whose wisdom formed, and whose omnipotence rules the great stupendous whole? On surveying the harmony displayed in the works of creation, our minds are impressed with sublime ideas, and the soul expands with awful love. Reflecting on our own nothingness, proud imagination dies within us, and we become of course all humility. Frail

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creatures as we are, we should not, however, implicitly adopt the opinion of the multitude. Such a compliance is no less characteristic of a weak mind, than dangerous, because infatuation is generally the mistress of popular opinions and actions. How then are we to extricate ourselves from the maze of surrounding errors? How! by summoning up a virtuous courage, a magnanimous resolution, a calm exertion of reason, and a firm compliance with the dictates of true religion; not that religion which is embraced by this or that sect, to the utter expulsion of others; but to the religion of the gospel, which explicitly says, "you cannot serve God and mammon." Resting on this rock, will be to shun the sands of credulity. We, who are now acting our several parts on the stage of life, are hastening off apace; it is therefore our duty not only to prepare for eternity, but endeavour to secure wisdom, virtue, and religion, to the rising generation! Our solicitude for the propagation of truth, una-

dulterated with credulity, cannot be better shown than in educating our children in such a manner as ultimately to establish them in virtue and piety. Our Creator hath made us reasonable beings, capable of attaining to a vast variety of matter; yet the soul may be said to come into the world unfurnished with knowledge. The powers of our nature would be instruments of madness, and run into a thousand pernicious errors, if we had not the happiness of being properly instructed. Hence the importance of training up children in the path of virtue and knowledge; in a steady adherence to the truths of the gospel, made so clear, the most simple can understand. Abiding by these will lead to happiness in this life, to a peace of conscience which will counteract the enmity of the world, and secure us a blest immortality.

History.

History acquaints us with the transactions and characters of mankind, from the remotest periods of antiquity to the present time; and gives us a knowledge of the most distant nations, as well as our own. It gives us a view of the powers of man, by showing in what manner he has improved, from the most barbarous and savage state of society, to that in which we now behold the most polished nations of the world. What different pictures do the same creatures exhibit, employed in hunting, fishing, and making war on each other with the most unrelenting cruelty, and, as we now behold them, improving life with useful arts, and embellishing it with ornaments and elegances, suited to a state of refinement. Nor does history do only this; it displays, in its account of all nations, how essential morality and virtue are to the happiness of a state, and how constantly vice and irreligion terminates in national ruin. This is not only a useful lesson to communities, but to

individuals; for every man is a little kingdom, where, if the inferior's powers and faculties are in due subjection to the superior, he resembles a well governed state; every part of the fabric is in peace and tranquillity, consequently happy; if, on the contrary, his inferior powers rebel against the superior, there exists the same internal commotion in the individual, as in a nation when in a state of civil confusion.

The same history which shows that the happiness of a nation depends on its virtue, informs us the happiness of individuals depends on the same principle; and that ruin will as certainly be the consequence of vice in an individual, as in the community at large.

Fenelon, Archbishop of Chambray.

The person of Fenelon is thus described by one who was intimately acquainted with him:

"He was above the middle size, elegantly formed, slender and pale. His nose was large and well shaped. His eyes darted fire and vivacity. His countenance was such, whoever had seen it once could never forget it. It contained every thing, and united contrarieties, without their appearing to be at variance. It contained gravity and sweetness, seriousness and cheerfulness. It exhibited equally the man of learning, the ecclesiastic, and nobleman; but what universally pervaded it, as well as the whole of his person, were finesse, understanding, decorum, the graces, and particularly dignity; insomuch that it required an effort to remove the eye from him. There appeared something more than mortal blended o'er the whole. All the portraits of him appeared to speak; yet no painter could ever reach the proportions, the harmony, and delicacy of character, that were united in his countenance. He possessed a natural, soft, and flowery eloquence, a politeness insinuating but noble, an elocution easy, neat, and agreeable, with a clearness and precision

o as to be understood at once, even when treating on the most abstracted and difficult matter.

"With all this superiority, he never permitted himself to appear to possess more understanding than those with whom he conversed. He put himself on a level with every one, without their perceiving he did so. To such a degree did he fascinate all to whom he spoke, that they could not quit him for a moment, without desiring to return to him. This rare talent, which he possessed in so eminent a degree, attached his friends to him all his life, in defiance of his exile and disgrace, and the unhappy distance they were from him. It united them in the melancholy pleasure of talking of him, of regretting him, of sighing after his return, and expecting it with the ardour of desire."

In the year 1709, a young sovereign prince passed a few days with Fenelon. Among other subjects, they conversed on toleration. Never, sir, said the archbishop, oblige your subjects to change their religion; no human power can force the impenetrable intrenchment of the freedom of thinking. Violence will never convince the heart; it can only make men hypocrites. Grant to all men a civil toleration of religion; not, as if you approved of every difference as a matter of indifference; but as if you permitted every thing with patience which God permitted. "All forms of government," said the good archbishop one day to the chevalier Ramsey, "are necessarily imperfect; for the supreme power in this world must ever be entrusted to man, yet all forms are good, when those who govern attend only to the great law of the public welfare."

To Mr. ———, who affirmed Pope to have been correct in asserting, that woman is at heart a rake.

If woman is at heart a rake,
A pedant you complete;

Defend, good sir, the ground you
take,
While I the charge repeat.

You think, in citing thus from Pope,
To show your taste and sense:
To copy him you need not hope,
Save but in imprudence.

Self Knowledge.

There are three characters which every man sustains; and these often extremely differ from one another. One which he possesses is his own opinion. Another that which he carries in the estimation of the world; and a third which he bears in the judgment of his maker: it is only the last which ascertains what he really is. Whether the character which the world forms of him be above or below the truth, it imports not much to know. But it is of eternal consequence, that the character which a man possesses in his own eyes, be formed upon that which he bears in the sight of God.

Euganimity.

I am no more raised or dejected, said Politiano, by the flattery of my friends, or the accusations of my enemies, than I am by the shadow of my own body; for although that shadow may be somewhat longer in the morning and evening than in the middle of the day, it does not induce me to think myself a taller man at those times than at noon. A good and wise man explores the recesses of his own heart daily, and enquires, when kept from vice, whether his innocence proceeded from purity of principle, or from worldly motives; whether he has been as solicitous to regulate his heart, as to preserve his manners from reproach. A heart bearing such a scrutiny, shrinks not at the malignity of the world.

For the Literary Magazine.

ANECDOTES OF DRESS.

THE first clothes we read of were immediately after the fall, when "Adam and Eve sewed fig-leaves together, and made themselves aprons." A poor sort of covering! but when God turned them out of Paradise, he provided warmer clothes for them: "Unto Adam and also unto his wife did the Lord God make coats of skin, and clothed them." After this, garments of knit work, then woven clothes came into use. At Cæsar's arrival, the Britons in the south part of the isle were attired with skins; but as civility grew under the Romans, they assumed the Roman habit. The English or Saxons, at their first arrival there, wore long jackets, were shorn all over the head, excepting about the crown, and under that an iron ring. Afterwards they wore loose and large white garments, with broad borders of divers colours, as the Lombards. Somewhat before the conquest they were all gallant, with coats to the mid-knee, head shorn, beard shaved, face painted, and arms laden with bracelets. But *totus homo in vultu est*, as the whole man is seen by his face, it will not be amiss to observe, that Edward the confessor wore very short cropt hair, whiskers and beard exceeding long. William the conqueror wore short hair, large whiskers, and a short round beard. Robert, his eldest son, it is well known, used short hose, from thence called courthose, courtoise, curtis: on his monument, yet extant at Gloucester, he is pourtrayed with short stockings of mail, reaching scarce up to the place where some garter below knee; no breeches, but a coat, or rather shirt of mail, instead of them. However, breeches and stockings are new terms, and, in the sense we now understand them, different things, being at first one and the same, all made of one piece of cloth, and then called hose.

William Rufus wore the hair of

his head a degree longer than his father; but no beard or whiskers. In 1104 (4, Henry I) Serlo bishop of Seez, preaching at Carenton, before the king, against long hair, caused him and all his courtiers to get their hair cropt as soon as they left the church; and accordingly Henry I, in his broad seal (as appears in Sandford), has no hair, beard, or whiskers. Stephen observed the same fashions. Henry II brought in the short mantle, and therefore had the name of Court-mantle. In his time the use of silk was first brought out of Greece into Sicily, and other parts of christendom. Richard I, in his first and second broad seals, has longish hair, no beard or whiskers. John, in his broad seal, has short hair, large whiskers, and short curled hair. The ladies, in the three last mentioned reigns, wore long cloaks from their shoulders to their heels, buttoned round the neck, and then thrown over the shoulders, hanging down behind.

Henry III wore whiskers, and a short round beard. The same king returning out of France, in 1243, commanded it to be proclaimed all over the kingdom, *ut qualibet civitate vel burgo quatuor cives vel burgenses honorabiliores et obviam procederent in vestibis pretiosis et desiderabilibus*; his design in which was to obtain presents from them. Edward I wore short hair, and no whiskers or beard. Edward II continued this fashion. Edward III, in his first and second broad seals, has long hair, but no beard or whiskers; in his third broad seal, shorter hair, large whiskers, and a two-pointed beard, and on his monument in Westminster abbey a very long beard. The same king, in our common prints of him, is generally pictured with a sort of hat on; but as hats are a deal more modern, wherever I see him drawn with a hat on, I conclude that picture to be a counterfeit. And indeed it may be questioned, whether there are any pictures of any of our kings painted before his time now extant.

Philippa, consort to this king, according to her monument at Westminster, wore a pretty sort of network cawl over her hair, with a long end of the same hanging down each ear.

In this reign I conceive it was that history says, "the commons were besotted in excess of apparel, going some in wide surcoats reaching to their loins; some in a garment reaching to their heels, close before, and strutting out on both sides, so that on the back they make men seem women, and this they call by a ridiculous name, *gown*. Their hoods are little, tied under the chin, and buttoned like the women's, but set with gold, silver, and precious stones. Their lerripples reach to their heels, all jagged. They have another weed of silk, which they call *paltocks*, without any breeches.— Their girdles are of gold and silver; their shoes and pattens snouted, and piked above a finger long, crooking upwards, and fastened to the knees with chains of gold or silver."

"In 1369, they began to use caps of divers colours, especially red, with costly linings; and in 1372, they first began to wanton it in a new round curtail weed called a cloak, in latin *armclausa* (*q. armi-clausa*), as only covering the shoulders."

But this cloak, as I take it, was no more than a monk's hood, or cowl. Richard II, in his picture in Westminster Abbey, is drawn with short curling hair, and a small curling two-pointed beard. Queen Anne, Richard IId's consort (who first taught the English women to ride on side-saddles, who heretofore rid astride), brought in high head attire, piked with horns, and long-trained gowns. Their high heads had sometimes one point, sometimes two, shaped like sugar-loaves; to which they had a sort of streamers fastened, which wantoned and hung down behind, and, turning up again, were tied to their girdles. Henry IV wore long hair, whiskers, and a double-pointed beard; in his time the long pocketed sleeve was much in vogue. Henry V wore much the

same: in this reign the shoes were remarkably broad, which Camden speaking of, says, "Not many years after, it was proclaimed, that no man should have his shoes broader at the toes than six inches. And women trimmed themselves with foxes' tails under their garments, as they do now with French farthingals; and men with absurd short garments. Henry VI, Edward IV, Richard III, and Henry VII, wore their hair moderately long, no whiskers or beard. Henry VIII had short cropt hair, large whiskers, and a short curled beard, his gown furred, the upper parts of his sleeves bowed out with whalebone, and open from his shoulders to his wrists, and there buttoned with diamonds; about his neck and wrists short ruffles. Queen Mary wore a close head dress, with a broad flat long end or train hanging down behind; strait sleeves down to her wrist; there and on her neck a narrow ruffle. On the 27th of May, 1555 (2, Queen Mary), sir William Cecil, being then at Calais, bought, as appears by his MS. Diary, three hats for his children. These are the first hats I have yet read of; and it should seem, at their first coming in, they were more worn by children than men, who yet kept to caps.

Queen Elizabeth wore no head dress, but her own or false hair in great plenty, extravagantly frizzled and curled; a bob or jewel dropt on her forehead; a huge laced doublet ruff, long piked stays, a hoop petticoat extended like a go-cart, her petticoat prodigiously full; her sleeves barrelled and hooped from the shoulders to the elbows, and again from the elbows to the wrists. In one picture of her she is drawn as above, with five bobs, one on her forehead, one above each ear, and one at each ear. This queen is said to have been the first person in England who wore stockings: before her time both men and women wore hose, that is breeches, or drawers, and stockings all of one piece of cloth. Sir Philip Sidney, one of her favourites, wore a huge high collar, stiffened with whale-

bone; a very broad stiff laced ruff; his doublet (body and sleeves) bombasted or barrelled, and pinked and slashed all over, small oblong buttons, and a loose long cloak. The custom of men sitting uncovered in the church is certainly very decent, but not very ancient. Dr. Cox, bishop of Ely, died 1581, whose funeral procession I have seen an admirable old drawing of; as likewise of the assembly sitting in the choir to hear the funeral sermon, all covered, and having their bonnets on. John Fox, the martyrologist, who died in 1587, when an old man (as appears by his picture), wore a strait cap covering his head and ears, and over that a deepish-crowned shallow-brimmed slouched hat. This is the first hat I have yet observed in any picture. Hats being thus come in, men began then to sit uncovered in the church, as I take it; for as hats look not so well on men's heads in places of public worship as hoods or bonnets (the former wear), this might probably be the first occasion of their doing so.

James I wore short hair, large whiskers, and a short beard; also a ruff and ruff ruffles. In 1612 (10, Jac. I), Mr. Hawley, of Gray's Inn, coming to court one day, Maxwell, a Scotsman, led him out of the room by a black string which he wore in his ear, a fashion then much in use; but this had like to have caused warm blood, had not the king made up the quarrel. Prince Henry, eldest son to James the first, wore short hair filleted and combed upward, short barrelled breeches, and silk thistles or carnations at the tie of his shoes. The young lord Harrington, this prince's contemporary, is painted in the same manner, with the addition of ear-drops, a double ruff, and barrelled doublet.

The great tub farthingal was much worn in this reign; the famous countess of Essex is pictured in a monstrous hoop of this sort. In conformity to the ladies of that age, the gentlemen fell into the ridiculous fashion of trunk hose, an affectation of the same kind, and carried

to so great a height by stuffing them out, that they might more properly have been called the farthingal breeches.

Charles I wore long hair, particularly one lock longer than the rest, hanging on the left side, large whiskers, a piked beard, a ruff, shoe roses, and a falling band. His queen wore a ruff standing on each side and behind, but her bosom open. Sir Francis Bacon, who died in 1626, in his fine monument at St. Alban's, is represented with monstrous shoe roses, and great bombast paned hose, reaching to the knees. About 1641, the forked shoes came into fashion, almost as long again as the feet, not less an impediment to the action of the foot than to reverential devotion, for our boots and shoes were so long snouted, we could hardly kneel. But as a short foot was soon thought to be more fashionable, full as much art became necessary to give it as short an appearance as possible. About 1650, both men and women had the whim of bringing down the hair of their heads to cover their forehead, so as to meet their eyebrows. In 1652, John Owen, dean of Christ church and vice chancellor of Oxford, went in querpo, like a young scholar, with powdered hair, his band strings with very large tassels, a large set of ribands at his knees, with tags at the ends of them; Spanish leather boots with large lawn tops, and his hat mostly cocked. After the close-stool-pan sort of hat, which had now been many years in wear, came in the sugar-loaf or high crowned hat; these, though mightily affected by both sexes, were so very incommodious, as that, every puff of wind blowing them off, they required the almost constant employment of one hand to secure them. Charles II, in 1660, appears to have worn a large thick cravat with tassels, a short doublet, large ruffles, short boots with great tops, a very short cloak, and long hair (one lock on the right side longer than ordinary), all pulled forward, and divided like a long wig on each side of his face: soon after he wore a periwig.

There is no end of the whims, vagaries, and fancies in dress which men and women have run into. Whole volumes might be wrote on the subject. However, these rude notes may serve as a sketch of the former times.

Old fables tell us of one Epimides, who after a sleep of fifty years awaked with amazement, finding a new world every where, both of men and fashion. Let this sleep go (as it well may) for a fabulous invention, the effects of it, his amazement, I am sure might have been credible enough, though the sleep had been shorter by many years. In some countries, if men should but put on those clothes which they left off but four or five years before, and use those fashions which were then in use, they would seem even to themselves ridiculous, and unto many little less than monstrous.

For the Literary Magazine.

ON EDUCATION.

LETTER II.

To the Editor, &c.

SIR,

WHEN the infant comes into the world, its mind is devoid of ideas, excepting those very few it has received in the womb, but in the course even of a few days it acquires several. Children are capable of combining and comparing ideas, and forming judgments, much sooner than is generally imagined; and as their minds possess but a small number of ideas, and almost every object is new to them, every thing strikes them with much greater force than it does a person of riper years, and fixes itself much stronger in their memories. A man whose faculties are impaired by age forgets the occurrences of the middle years of life, but hardly ever those of childhood; he often remembers them much more perfectly than the transactions of yesterday. As, then, children are so susceptible of impressions, and as these early im-

pressions are so difficult to be eradicated, and frequently form leading features of their characters ever afterwards, we cannot be too careful what ideas we inculcate into their minds. The nursery-maid does as much towards forming the character of a child as the school-master.

Nurses and mothers hardly ever talk sense to them. They sing them to sleep with stories that would astonish even the inhabitants of Bedlam, and, in the day, tell them tales of giants and fairies, whose tremendous actions alarm their fears, and are frequently used as threats to terrify them when disobedient; and, when taught their letters, almost the only books given them to read are histories of Cock Robin, Jack the Giant-Killer, and a parcel of rubbish; every line of which serves only to render their little understanding less. Hence the generality of children have good memories, a credulity that will swallow every thing, abundance of superstition, and reason inferior to that of the brute creation.

But how can this be remedied? By not intrusting them to the care of persons from whom they can only learn what they must afterwards unlearn. Let parents superintend their education during infancy themselves. To a feeling heart no gratification can be so exquisite. It is the first of all duties. It is far better to give them a good education with a little money, than a bad one with ever so large an estate. When the child begins to read, some books should be given it, containing, in short sentences, its duties towards God, its neighbour, and itself; little histories, relating nothing extraordinary or miraculous: the histories of children engage their attention above all others, because they are exactly suited to their capacities, and they can easily comprehend them*; and whatever they read

* I have seen some excellent little books of this description, printed by Jacob Johnson, of this city, a gentleman who emulates the "philanthropic

should be fully explained to them; and as soon as they are able they should be made, in an hour or two afterwards, to repeat the substance of their lesson, with its explanation.

Children generally have a deal of curiosity; every thing is new to them, and therefore excites their attention. This curiosity should be encouraged and increased by every possible means. If they do not ask for an explanation of every thing, we should give it them; and, by constantly keeping their minds occupied on things of importance, their understandings will enlarge, and soon outgrow trifles. To refuse to gratify their curiosity is to forbid them to learn, and damps their thirst after knowledge. But there is a still more abominable practice some parents are guilty of than merely letting their children remain in ignorance, which is, the instructing them in error, in answering their questions falsely. They think that, as the child will not know whether they tell it truth or falsehood, it is immaterial which they tell it. The asking for an explanation proves that its attention is strongly engaged; the answer therefore will be deeply engraven on its memory. This practice will inevitably make it believe wrong. The explanation will in all probability contradict its reason, or some previous instruction it has received; its little mind will be filled with doubts which it cannot solve; by receiving contradictory solutions it will discover that the truth is not always told it, and imbibe a sceptical disposition, and be forward to disbelieve instructions that are really valuable.

And this leads me to the third point, *That our instructions should be always uniform.* In addition to the inconveniences just stated, contradictory instructions will lead the child to lying. When chastised for a fault, it will justify itself by some precept it has received; when

chastised for another fault, it will justify itself by some other precept, directly opposite to the former. If it cannot remember a precept that will bear it out, it will soon seek, by some trifling alteration, to convert one into an excuse; and by a natural gradation, in a little time, excuse itself by an entire falsehood. In this part of education example is at least as important as verbal instructions, and is what very few parents attend to. They correct the child for ill-humour, and perhaps directly afterwards put themselves into a passion. Here are contradictory instructions, and the example coming last eradicates all that the precept and correction have taught. Those who are intrusted with the care of children cannot be too attentive to their own behaviour and conversation, for they frequently learn as much from the conversation their parents hold with third persons, as from the instructions which are given immediately to themselves.

Many parents, from a mistaken tenderness, indulge their children in every thing that they desire; and, from a fear of rendering them unhappy, never contradict them. Of all children, none is so unhappy as one that is spoilt. It wants things which it is impossible for it to obtain; and is as miserable, because it cannot procure them, as if it was deprived of some absolute necessary of life. It renders itself disagreeable to every body but its misguided parents. When sent to school, it is obnoxious to its schoolfellows, who will not submit to its caprices, and the harshness of the treatment it receives both from them and from the master or mistress is generally in proportion to the inordinate indulgence it has received at home.

But of all bad practices, none is equal to that of partiality. Even if parents feel a greater degree of affection for one child than another, they ought not to show it. The favourite is always spoilt: and seeds of dissension are sown between the children, which sometimes can never be eradicated.

bookseller in St. Paul's Church Yard,
the friend of children, the friend of
mankind."

Though I am a strong advocate for gentleness, I can by no means agree with M. Rousseau, "That children should never be corrected, even when they do amiss." As little can I subscribe to Dr. Johnson's opinion, "That they should not be rewarded when they do well." They will not be at the trouble of learning without some inducement; there are but two inducements in nature, the hope of pleasure and the fear of pain. There must be a particular motive for every action; if therefore we dispense rewards alone, we must gratify them with something for every lesson they learn; and besides, by never being contradicted, they will grow self-willed and overbearing. On the other hand, if they are governed entirely by fear, they will acquire a servile disposition, the energy of their minds will be damped; and, though they may be beat into great scholars, they will never become great philosophers or legislators.

To become truly great, a strong spirit of emulation is necessary; but as this is the most important and the most difficult part of education, I shall reserve my sentiments upon it for another letter.

W. W.

For the Literary Magazine.

DESCRIPTION OF RHODE ISLAND BRIDGE.

THIS bridge connects the north-east end of the island with the main land, in Tiverton, at a place called Howland's ferry, about 11 miles from Newport. It is 1524 feet in length, from the west end on the island, to the east end on the main; and 864 feet between the former abutments of the old (wooden) bridge, where the average depth of water is 39 to 40 feet, and the greatest depth 59 to 60 feet at high-water. This bridge is building on the following plan: a sufficient quantity of stone to be thrown pro-

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miscuously into the river, in a line across, to form a base, with such declivity on each side as the stones shall rest at, and of such width, as will make a ridge levelled to 35 feet wide at low-water mark. On this base, a causeway to be raised 5 feet above high-water mark, and to be 31 feet wide on the top for the passage way; the walls of which to be built with large flat stones, the space between to be filled with stone, and the top levelled with gravel. On each side to be erected a substantial fence or wall, for the safety of passengers. The whole to be filled up and built in this manner, except a passage of 66 feet near the centre of the river, over which a drawbridge is to be thrown.

This great and novel work was undertaken the last summer, and the following is the present state of it:— From the east end of the bridge to the draw, a distance of 757 feet is nearly completed; a drawbridge, on a very simple and good model, is thrown over the passage left in the river, to open 30 feet for vessels to pass, which is worked with great ease and dispatch by one man; from the draw westward, 184 feet is filled up to low-water mark; on the west end, 140 feet is nearly complete; and 228 feet further eastward is filled up to low-water mark; the remaining space, about 150 feet, is filled up, on an average, within 5 feet of low-water.

It is expected, that the bridge may be passed on foot, at low-water, on the first of September: and probably carriages may pass in October next. The time requisite for the stones thrown in loosely to settle, and form a natural or secure angle, before the side walls can be built up where it has lately been filled in, will delay the completion of the work till next summer; but it is expected the bridge can be passed by horses and cattle (if not by carriages) without difficulty, after October.

To raise the money requisite for building this bridge, a subscription was opened, under the act of incor-

poration, for 800 shares of 100 dollars each, which has been subscribed, and it is expected will complete this work.

This undertaking, though not so expensive as many, may be considered as the most enterprising, considering the rapidity of the current and the very great depth of water; and that it was impossible to make a bridge that would stand, unless by filling up a passage across the river, in the manner which has been done. The quantity of stone already used, and which will be required, is immense. The success of the undertaking, and durability of the bridge, cannot be questioned, by any who examine it.

There are few works of greater public utility: it establishes a permanent communication with the main land; is the most direct, and shortest way to Boston, and the only way to New Bedford. To travel from hence to Boston, via Providence, requires two days; but a line of stages will run, on this new route, across the bridge, to and from Boston, with great ease, in one day. It will form an essential security to this island, in case of war with any European power, as it will keep open a communication from the main, which cannot be destroyed: and, by stopping up the passage, prevent ships of war from sailing round the island.

The country, where this causeway bridge is erected, has a delightful climate, affords a diversified and interesting perspective.—In the season, there are plenty of curlews, plovers, and other game. The river abounds with almost every kind of fish that is brought to market; particularly the sheep's-head, striped bass, blue fish, and togue, of the largest size: and for sea bathing, no place on the continent can be preferred to it. It is expected, in a few years, that it will become a fashionable place of great resort, where invalids, bon vivants, and parties of pleasure, may benefit their healths, or agreeably pass the summer months.

Newport, Aug. 16.

For the Literary Magazine.

ACCOUNT OF THE PROFIT AND LOSS UPON A FLOCK OF SHEEP WINTERED AT CLERMONT, IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK, IN 1806—7.

Published, by order of the Agricultural Society of Dutchess county, N. Y., by the proprietor, Robert R. Livingston.

THE flock consisted of six full bred Merino sheep, twenty-four three-fourths bred, thirty half bred, and seventeen common sheep of good quality. They were kept in one flock, and treated alike in every respect. The full bred were two rams and four ewes, one of the ewes died in February a lambing. She was eight years old. Two ewes lambed in March, the other was a yearling and had not taken a ram. On May 28 the five sheep were shorn, and gave 28½lbs. of wool. They had not been washed, but as they were well littered in the fold, and kept out except at night, the wool was not so foul as common.

28½lbs. of wool sold to

Mr. Booth at 10s.	£14	7	6
1 ram lamb sold at \$100	40	0	0
1 ewe do. not sold, as I have not yet my complement	40	0	0
Wool from the ewe that died 4½lbs. at 10s.	2	5	0
	96	12	6

Deduct for the old ewe that died, which cost at 2 years old \$80	£15	0	0
Keeping 6 sheep at 12s.	3	12	0
	£78	0	6

Account of 24 three-quarter bred sheep.

24 sheep, among which there was but one yearling wether, Gave 106lbs. of wool, sold at 5s.	£26	10	0
Keeping at 12s. deduct	14	8	0

Clear profit on the wool £12 2 0

Remains to be credited 21 seven-eighths bred lambs at £

N. B. This wool was worth at least 8s., though sold at 5s., the rate at which the half blood sold, though it was much finer, and many fleeces very little inferior to the full bred sheep.

Account of 35 half bred Merinoes.

5 lambs sold before shearing to Mr. Dean at \$12	£24	0	0
30 shorn gave 189½lbs. of wool, sold at 5s.	34	17	6
	58	17	6
Expence of 35, at 12s.	21	0	0
Clear profit, exclusive of lambs	£37	17	6
To 22 three-quarters bred lambs at £			

N. B. I have not carried out the price of the lambs, because this is in some measure arbitrary, and proportioned to the demand. I have myself, however, purchased three-quarter bred ewes at 7 dollars, and sold my half bloods at 12 dollars. I value the seven-eighths at 40 dollars the ewes, and 50 for the rams. Taking the average at 15 dollars for the whole 22 lambs, it would amount to 440l. to be added to the account of profits.

RECAPITULATION.

Clear profit on 5 merinoes	£78	0	6
Do. on the wool of 24 three-quarter bred do.	26	10	0
Do. on 35 half bred do., including 5 sold	37	7	6
Clear profit on 64 sheep, exclusive of lambs	£141	18	0

Account of 17 common sheep, part of the above flock.

Keeping at 12s. of 17 sheep	£10	4	0
Fleeces unwashed 62½lbs. at 2s. 6d.	8	11	3
Loss, if lambs are not credited,	1	12	9
15 lambs at 12s.	£9	0	0

Two things will require explanation in the above statement. 1st. The quality of wool given by my merinoes, and next the low price at which I sold the wool of the three-quarter bred sheep.

It will seem extraordinary that five merinoes should have given twenty-eight pounds and three quarters of wool, which is near six pounds, and would probably amount to about four pounds of washed wool, per head. But it is to be considered that these were chosen, or bred from those that were chosen with care out of a flock of two hundred that were themselves an improved stock. For it is an undoubted fact, that the merinoes of the national flock have greatly improved in France by care and attention; that they are larger and yield more wool (with the latter having deteriorated) than the merinoes of Spain. This is a very encouraging circumstance, and the rather as I can add, from my own experience, that the French merinoes improve here when well kept. That there is no error in my statement is clear from this circumstance. Mr. Booth purchased the wool, and weighed it a second time himself, after it had been weighed by my overseer, their accounts agreeing exactly.

Though the wool of the fourth bred sheep was only sold at five shillings, yet it was worth at least eight, since it was, in most of the fleeces, nearly as fine as that of the full bred sheep. But as this was the first time I had sold the wool, and Mr. Booth took all I had, I gave it to him at the price that he put upon that of the half blood sheep. I should mention here, that Mr. Dean informs me, that the five lambs he had of me have given him five pounds of washed wool per head, which he can sell to the hatters at eight shillings per pound, so that, had they been purchased only for the wool, they would have yielded about 30 per cent on the capital.

Though in the above statement I have credited the wool below its real value, and at the price at which I sold it, yet, even at these prices, the

contrast between the merino and the common sheep is sufficiently obvious to induce every intelligent farmer to change his stock as fast as he can do it with convenience, and without too much expence. Without speaking of the full blood, which it would be difficult as yet to procure, I will contrast the half bloods with the common sheep kept with them, and fed exactly alike: My half bloods gave in wool 11s. 10d. per head profit, after paying 12s. for their keeping; whereas the keeping of the common sheep amounting to a fraction more than 1s. 10d. per head beyond the value of their wool, making a difference of 13s. 3d. per head, between the profit of half bred merinoes and common sheep, supposing the lambs both equal in value, though, in fact, the difference in the value of the sheep must necessarily extend to the lambs, and render the contrast still more striking. Let any agriculturalist make the calculation upon a flock of one hundred wethers of each sort, and conviction must stare him in the face. One hundred common wethers would give, if well kept, 250lbs. of washed wool, worth 3s. per pound, 52l. 10s. The same number of half bred merinoes would yield at least 400lbs. worth 8s. or 160l. Deduct the keeping at 12s. and the merino flock affords a clear profit of 100l. while the loss upon the common sheep amounts to 7l. 10s. They are then a losing stock till sold to the butchers, and then, if killed at 3 years old, do not give 7s. a year profit per head. Thus if sold fat they are worth 300l.; from this must be deducted the annual loss for three years, 22l. 15s., leaving an ultimate clear profit of \$243 25, at the end of three years, during which time the owner has been paying an annual loss, with the interest of which the flock should be charged. While on the other hand the half blood merinoes will obtain the same price from the butcher at the end of three years, and will in the mean time have paid an annual profit of 100l. yearly for the interest of

which the flock should be credited, and if sold in the winter when their fleeces are grown, will give an additional profit of \$200, beyond the common sheep sold under similar circumstances.

Who is there that does not feel the difference between receiving 100l. yearly, and waiting 3 years before your capital produces any thing? It may be said the merinos are less profitable from want of size, as animals of the same species, generally speaking, eat in proportion to their size. I think then is no weight in this objection, if it was really founded. But this I can say, that I have no doubt that if my sheep of the full and mixed breed were weighed against any common flock of equal numbers, they would outweigh them. They are certainly heavier and better woolled than any other sheep that I have seen, except some of the best English breeds. We should add, the merino will yield a greater profit if kept seven years, whereas, every year that a common sheep is kept after he is fit for the butcher is so much loss, inasmuch as the wool does not pay for his keeping.

These observations, founded upon undeniable facts, are so striking, that I hope to see this useful breed of sheep as much encouraged as it deserves to be, and I deem it a very happy circumstance, that the introduction of them by col. Humphreys into Connecticut from Spain, and by myself from France in the same year, into this state, furnish the intelligent farmer with means for the gradual change of his flock, which may be effected by the purchase of three quarter and half blooded rams, whose fleeces alone will annually pay 30 per cent. upon the price they cost, so that, in fact, the change may be wrought without any expence, and for a trifling advance of money. I am satisfied that even the introduction of one quarter Spanish blood into a flock will improve the fleece to the value of 5s., so that instead of losing annually 1s. 10d. on

the wool of every sheep in the flock, 3s. 2d. will be gained; and a ram who will cost about 3l. more than a good common ram will add 12l. 10s. yearly to the value of a flock consisting of 50 ewes.

Clermont, July 2, 1807.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE MELANGE.

NO. VIII.

Beauty destroyed by Affectation.

The brightest forms through Affectation fade
To strange new things, which nature never made:
Frown not, ye fair, so much your sex we prize,
We hate those arts which take you from our eyes.
In Albucinda's native grace is seen,
What you, who labour at perfection, mean:
Short is the rule, and to be learnt with ease;
Retain your gentle selves, and you must please.

YOUNG.

THE graces, all three sisters, all extremely pretty ladies, and maids of honour to the goddess Venus, the all-powerful queen of love, lived together, for a long time, in the strictest bonds of affection and friendship one towards another, which is somewhat extraordinary, indeed, as they were such near relations, such uncommon beauties, and such distinguished favourites at court.

In process of time, however, pride and ambition sowed the seeds of jealousy amongst them. Each began to plume herself on her own imaginary charms, and each insisted on her precedence, as having the most fire in her eyes, the most resistless arts of pleasing in conversation, and the surest and most enchanting ways of making captives

of her beholders. The contest, in short, grew so warm, that they entertained thoughts of making their appeal to their mistress Venus on so important and critical an affair.

"For my part," said miss Euphrosyne, with a smile of indifference and disdain, "I desire no better a judge, since no one will be more impartial; and we are all sensible that no one can possibly be better qualified to settle and adjust the merit and prize of beauty. Let us lay, I say, my dear sisters, all animosities aside, and at once, without more ado, agree to refer our cause to her decision. Let her declare which of us is in reality possessed of the most prevailing charms, the most resistless arts of pleasing; but, then, let us unanimously agree, likewise, to make no further appeals; let us acquiesce in, and subscribe to, her sentence, as final and conclusive."

"Subscribe to her yourself, if you please," replied miss Thalia, not a little nettled, and visibly chagrined at her sister's seeming confidence in the merit of her cause.

"Without any further words or dissention between us," said miss Aglae, "I highly approve of the proposal. I don't care, sisters, for my part, how soon our petty controversy is drawn to a final conclusion."

This emulation of their's soon reached the ears of their mistress Venus, who summoned them all immediately to make their personal appearance in court; and accordingly assumed the bed of justice with such a grace, and such an air of complacency, as is beyond the power of words to express; reflecting with a secret pleasure, how in time past, upon a dispute of the like nature, the golden apple was adjudged to herself by the shepherd Paris, in preference both to Juno and Minerva.

The court being set, and all the contending parties present, Venus directed each of them to exert her peculiar talents, and secret arts of

incantation, to which she laid a peculiar claim.

Each accordingly prepared to obey her orders: all of them equally fired with a fond desire and restless hope of being pronounced the best qualified charmer, with equal pleasure and cheerfulness practised their studied arts and stratagems to please before her. But those restless hopes, those fond desires of approbation, with which they were all embarrassed, perfectly baffled their ambitious views, and turned out to their equal disadvantage.

One screwed up her mouth in so prim a form, that she made the most frightful and disagreeable figure that could well be conceived; the second, through an inordinate ambition to show her fine row of teeth, distorted every feature of her face; and the last, proud of her black sparkling eyes, rolled them about to such a violent degree, that, in the eye of her female and impartial judge, she appeared perfectly to squint.

"Are these your arts?" said Venus. "Are those your studied charms?—Fie, ladies, fie!—I almost blush for you. How dare you put on such artful airs before me?—Get out of court: go home directly. Consult your respective mirrors with impartiality, and let me hear no more of your unnatural contentions. If you are desirous of resuming your former title, I mean that of the graces, and my favourite attendants; if you are actually eager and fond of pleasing, never study any of those killing airs, I beseech you. As the least thought of that nature is too much, never think of your charms at all; for it is a maxim with me, that will admit of no exception,—that she who is solicitous of pleasing over much, inevitably gives disgust. In a word,

"Affectation is the bane of Beauty."

—

Queen Mary.

Many curious MS. papers relative to Mary queen of Scots are to be

met with in the library of the Scots college at Paris. The last time David Hume was in that city, the learned and excellent principal of the college showed them to him, and asked him, why he had pretended to write her history in an unfavourable manner, without consulting them? David, on being told this, looked over some letters that the principal put into his hands, and, though not much used to the melting mood, burst into tears. Had Mary written the memoirs of her own life, how interesting must they have been; a queen, a beauty, a wit, a scholar, in distress, must have laid hold of the heart of every reader; and there is all the reason in the world to suppose, that she would have been candid and impartial. Mary, indeed, completely contradicted the observation made by the learned Selden in this Table-talk, "that men are not troubled to hear men dispraised, because they know that though one be naught, there is still worth in others; but *women* are mightily troubled to hear any of themselves spoken against, as if the sex itself were guilty of some unworthiness:" for when one of the Cecil family, minister to Scotland from England in Mary's reign, was speaking of the wisdom of his sovereign queen Elizabeth, Mary stopped him short, by saying, "Seigneur chevalier, ne me parlez jamais de la sagesse d'une femme; je connois bien mon sexe; la plus sage de nous toutes n'est qu'un peu moins sotte que les autres." The pictures in general supposed to be those of this unfortunate princess, differ very much from one another, and all of them from the gold medal struck of her and her husband Francis II at Paris, and which is now in Dr. Hunter's museum in Wind-mill street, London. This medal represents her as having a turned-up nose. Mary, however, was so graceful in her figure, that when, at one of the processions of the host at Paris, she was carrying the wafer in the pix, a woman burst through the croud

to touch her, to convince herself that she was not an angel.

Mary was so learned, that at the age of fifteen years she pronounced a latin oration of her own composition before the whole court of France at the Louvre.

A very curious account of her execution was published in France soon after that event, and it appears by that, that on her body's falling after decapitation, her favourite spaniel jumped out of her clothes. Immediately before her execution she repeated the following latin prayer, composed by herself; which has lately been set to a very solemn and affecting glee for three voices, by the ingenious Dr. Harrington, of Bath.

O Domine Deus, speravi in te!

O care mi Jesu, nunc libera me!

In durâ, catenâ, in miserâ penâ,
dèssidero te!

Languendo, gemendo, & genuflectendo,

Adoro, imploro, ut liberés me!

Desultory Thoughts.

The old world and the new have been incessantly canvassing the question, "What makes man happy?" but I never heard that either disputed what meat would best gratify his palate: and yet it is as clear, that the same things will not make all men happy, as that the same meats will not please all palates.

Our law says, with great propriety, *To delay justice is injustice.* Not to have a right, and not to be able to come at it, differ but little.

When a piece strongly affects you, or raises exalted sentiments, never go about it to examine it by the rules of composition: those emotions are the best proof that it comes from a masterly hand.

False greatness is morose and inaccessible, as if, sensible of its unworthiness, it sought concealment; or just showing what may dazzle the world, but not its open face, for

fear of discovering its real sordidness. True greatness, on the contrary, is free, complaisant, familiar, popular, suffers itself to be touched and handled, loses nothing by a near view, but rather is the more admired the more it is known. It bends to inferiors, and with a natural greatness erects itself again. Sometimes it is all loose and negligent, lays aside all its advantages, yet never loses the power of resuming them and commanding reverence; it preserves dignity amid the sallies of laughter and jocularities; we approach it at once with freedom and awe; it is noble and humane, inspiring respect, but not destroying cheerfulness. Hence we view good princes, though exalted to the height of greatness, without any mortifying recurrence to the lowness of our own condition.

To feel the want of reason is next to having it: an idiot is not capable of this sensation. The best thing next to wit is a consciousness that it is not in us: without wit, a man might then know how to behave himself so as not to appear to be a fool or a coxcomb.

That men usually grow more covetous as they grow older, does not so much proceed from the increase of their affection for wealth, as from the decrease of their inclinations for any thing besides: their regard for money continues the same, but they meet with fewer temptations to part with it: their love of pleasures is lessened by satiety, their ambition by disappointment, their prodigality by experience, and their generosity by ingratitude.

Honour is but a fictitious kind of honesty; a mean, but a necessary substitute for it, in societies who have none: it is a sort of paper credit, with which men are obliged to trade who are deficient in the sterling cash of true morality and religion.

Women are certainly not at all inferior to men in resolution, and perhaps much less in courage than is commonly imagined; the reason

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why they appear so is, because women affect to be more afraid than they really are, and men pretend to be less.

For the Literary Magazine.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE BEE.

THE skill and dexterity of the *honey-bees*, displayed in the construction of their combs or nests, have at all times called forth the admiration of mankind. They are composed of cells regularly applied to each other's sides. These cells are uniform hexagons or six-sided figures. In a bee-hive, every part is arranged with such symmetry, and so finely finished, that, if limited to the same materials, the most expert workman would find himself unqualified to construct a similar habitation, or rather a similar city.

In the formation of their combs, bees seem to resolve a problem which would be not a little puzzling to some geometers, namely, A quantity of wax being given, to make of it equal and similar cells of a determined capacity, but of the largest size in proportion to the quantity of matter employed, and disposed in such a manner as to occupy in the hive the least possible space. Every part of this problem is completely executed by the bees. By applying hexagonal cells to each other's sides, no void spaces are left between them; and, though the same end might be accomplished by other figures, yet they would necessarily require a greater quantity of wax. Besides, hexagonal cells are better fitted to receive the cylindrical bodies of these insects. A comb consists of two strata of cells applied to each other's ends. This arrangement both saves room in the hive, and give a double entry into the cells of which the comb is composed. As a farther saving of wax, and preventing void spaces, the bases of the cells in one stratum of a comb serve for bases to the opposite stratum.

In a word, the more minutely the construction of these cells are examined, the more will the admiration of the observer be excited. The walls of the cells are so extremely thin, that their mouths would be in danger of suffering by the frequent entering and issuing of the bees. To prevent this disaster, they make a kind of ring round the margin of each cell, and this ring is three or four times thicker than the walls.

It is difficult to perceive, even with the assistance of glass-hives, the manner in which bees operate when constructing their cells. They are so eager to afford mutual assistance, and, for this purpose, so many of them crowd together, and are perpetually succeeding each other, that their individual operations can seldom be distinctly observed. It has, however, been plainly discovered, that their two teeth are the only instruments they employ in modelling and polishing the wax. With a little patience and attention, we perceive cells just begun; we likewise remark the quickness with which a bee moves its teeth against a small portion of the cell. This portion the animal, by repeated strokes on each side, smooths, renders compact, and reduces to a proper thinness of consistence. While some of the hive are lengthening their hexagonal tubes, others are laying the foundations of new ones. In certain circumstances, when extremely hurried, they do not complete their new cells, but leave them imperfect till they have begun a number sufficient for their present exigencies. When a bee puts its head a little way into a cell, we easily perceive it scraping the walls with the points of its teeth, in order to detach such useless and irregular fragments as may have been left in the work. Of such fragments the bee forms a ball about the size of a pin-head, comes out of the cell, and carries this wax to another part of the work where it is needed. It no sooner leaves the cell than it is suc-

ceeded by another bee which performs the same office, and in this manner the work is successively carried on till the cell is completely polished.

The cells of bees are designed for different purposes. Some of them are employed for the accumulation and preservation of honey. In others the female deposits her eggs, and from these eggs worms are hatched, which remain in the cells till their final transformation into flies. The drones or males are larger than the common or working bees; and the queen, or mother of the hive, is much larger than either. A cell destined for the lodgment of a male or female worm must, therefore, be considerably larger than the cells of the smaller working bees. The number of cells destined for the reception of the working bees far exceeds those in which the males are lodged. The honey-cells are always made deeper and more capacious than the others. When the honey collected is so abundant that the vessels cannot contain it, the bees lengthen, and of course deepen the honey-cells.

Their mode of working, and the disposition and division of their labour, when put into an empty hive, do much honour to the sagacity of bees. They immediately begin to lay the foundations of their combs, which they execute with surprising quickness and alacrity. Soon after they begin to construct one comb, they divide into two or three companies, each of which, in different parts of the hive, is occupied with the same operations. By this division of labour, a greater number of bees have an opportunity of being employed at the same time, and, consequently, the common work is sooner finished. The combs are generally arranged in a direction parallel to each other. An interval or street between the combs is always left, that the bees may have a free passage, and an easy communication with the different combs in the hive. These streets are just wide enough to allow two bees to pass

one another. Beside these parallel streets, to shorten their journey when working, they have several round cross passages, which are always covered.

Hitherto we have chiefly taken notice of the manner in which bees construct and polish their cells, without treating of the materials they employ. We have not marked the difference between the crude matter collected from flowers and the true wax. Every body knows that bees carry into their hives, by means of their hind thighs, great quantities of the farina or dust of flowers. After many experiments made by Reaumur, with a view to discover whether this dust contained real wax, he was obliged to acknowledge, that he could never find that wax formed any part of its composition. He at length discovered, that wax was not a substance produced by the mixture of farina with any glutinous substance, nor by trituration, nor any mechanical operation. By long and attentive observation, he found that the bees actually eat the farina which they so industriously collect; and that this farina, by an animal process, is converted into wax. This digestive process, which is necessary to the formation of wax, is carried on in the second stomach, and perhaps in the intestines of bees. After knowing the place where this operation is performed, chymists will probably allow, that it is equally difficult to make real wax with the farina of flowers, as to make chyle with animal or vegetable substances, a work which is daily executed by our own stomach and intestines, and by those of other animals. Reaumur likewise discovered, that all the cells in a hive were not destined for the reception of honey, and for depositing the eggs of the female, but that some of them were employed as receptacles for the farina of flowers, a species of food that bees find necessary for the formation of wax, which is the great basis and raw material of all their curious operations. When a bee comes to the hive with

its thighs filled with farina, it is often met near the entrance by some of its companions, who first take off the load, and then devour the provisions so kindly brought to them. But, when none of the bees employed in the hive are hungry for this species of food, the carriers of the farina deposit their loads in cells prepared for that purpose. To these cells the bees resort, when the weather is so bad that they cannot venture to go to the fields in quest of fresh provisions. The carrying bees, however, commonly enter the hive loaded with farina. They walk along the combs, beating and making a noise with their wings. By these movements they seem to announce their arrival to their companions. No sooner has a loaded bee made these movements, than three or four of those within leave their work, come up to it, and first take off its load, and then eat the materials it has brought. As a farther evidence that the bees actually eat the farina of flowers, when the stomach and intestines are laid open, they are often found to be filled with this dust, the grains of which, when examined by the microscope, have the exact figure, colour, and consistence of farina, taken from the antherae of particular flowers. After the farina is digested, and converted into wax, the bees possess the power of bringing it from their stomachs to their mouths. The instrument they employ in furnishing materials for constructing their waxen cells is their tongue. This tongue is situated below the two teeth or fangs. When at work, the tongue may be seen by the assistance of a lens and a glass-hive. It is then in perpetual motion, and its motions are extremely rapid. Its figure continually varies. Sometimes it is more sharp, at others it is flatter, and sometimes it is more or less concave, and partly covered with a moist paste or wax. By the different movements of its tongue the bee continues to supply fresh wax to the two teeth, which are employed in raising and fashioning the walls of

its cell, till they have acquired a sufficient height. As soon as the moist paste or wax dries, which it does almost instantaneously, it then assumes all the appearances and qualities of common wax. There is a still stronger proof that wax is the result of an animal process. When bees are removed into a new hive, and closely confined from the morning to the evening, if the hive chances to please them, in the course of this day several waxen cells will be formed, without the possibility of a single bee's having had access to the fields. Besides, the rude materials, or the farina of plants, carried into the hive, are of various colours. The farina of some plants employed by the bees is whitish; in others it is of a fine yellow colour; in others it is almost entirely red; and in others it is green. The combs constructed with these differently coloured materials are, however, uniformly of the same colour. Every comb, especially when it is newly made, is of a pure white colour, which is more or less tarnished by age, the operation of the air, or by other accidental circumstances. To bleach wax, therefore, requires only the art of extracting such foreign bodies as may have insinuated themselves into its substance, and changed its original colour.

Bees, from the nature of their constitution, require a warm habitation. They are likewise extremely solicitous to prevent insects of any kind from getting admittance into their hives. To accomplish both these purposes, when they take possession of a new hive, they carefully examine every part of it, and, if they discover any small holes or chinks, they immediately paste them firmly up with a resinous substance which differs considerably from wax. This substance was not unknown to the ancients. Pliny mentions it under the name of *pro-polis*, or bee-glue. Bees use the propolis for rendering their hives more close and perfect, in preference to wax, because the former is more durable, and more powerfully re-

sists the vicissitudes of weather than the latter. This glue is not, like wax, procured by an animal process. The bees collect it from different trees, as the poplars, the birches, and the willows. It is a complete production of Nature, and requires no addition or manufacture from the animals by which it is employed. After a bee has procured a quantity sufficient to fill the cavities in its two hind thighs, it repairs to the hive. Two of its companions instantly draw out the propolis, and apply it to fill up such chinks, holes, or other deficiencies, as they find in their habitation. But this is not the only use to which bees apply the propolis. They are extremely solicitous to remove such insects or foreign bodies as happen to get admission into the hive. When so light as not to exceed their powers, they first kill the insect with their stings, and then drag it out with their teeth. But it sometimes happens that an ill-fated snail creeps into the hive. It is no sooner perceived than it is attacked on all sides, and stung to death. But how are the bees to carry out a burden of such weight? This labour they know would be in vain. They are perhaps apprehensive that a body so large would diffuse, in the course of its putrefaction, a disagreeable or noxious odour through the hive. To prevent such hurtful consequences, immediately after the animal's death, they embalm it by covering every part of its body with propolis, through which no effluvia can escape. When a snail with a shell gets entrance, to dispose of it gives much less trouble and expence to the bees. As soon as this kind of snail receives the first wound from a sting, it naturally retires within its shell. In this case, the bees, instead of pasting it all over with propolis, content themselves with glueing all round the margin of the shell, which is sufficient to render the animal for ever immoveably fixed.

But propolis, and the materials for making wax, are not the on-

ly substances these industrious animals have to collect. As formerly remarked, beside the whole winter, there are many days in summer in which the bees are prevented by the weather from going abroad in quest of provisions. They are, therefore, under the necessity of collecting, and amassing in cells destined for that purpose, large quantities of honey. This sweet and balsamic liquor they extract, by means of their proboscis or trunk, from the nectariferous glands of flowers. The trunk of a bee is a kind of rough cartilaginous tongue. After collecting a few small drops of honey, the animal with its proboscis conveys them to its mouth and swallows them. From the oesophagus or gullet, it passes into the first stomach, which is more or less swelled in proportion to the quantity of honey it contains. When empty, it has the appearance of a fine white thread: but, when filled with honey, it assumes the figure of an oblong bladder, the membrane of which is so thin and transparent, that it allows the colour of the liquor it contains to be distinctly seen. This bladder is well known to children who live in the country. They cruelly amuse themselves with catching bees, and tearing them asunder, in order to suck the honey. A single flower furnishes but a small quantity of honey. The bees are, therefore, obliged to fly from one flower to another till they fill their first stomachs. When they have accomplished this purpose, they return directly to the hive, and discharge in a cell the whole honey they have collected. It not unfrequently happens, however, that, when on its way to the hive, it is accosted by a hungry companion. How the one can communicate its necessity to the other, it is perhaps impossible to discover. But the fact is certain that, when two bees meet in this situation, they mutually stop, and the one whose stomach is full of honey extends its trunk, opens its mouth, which lies a little beyond the teeth, and, like ruminating ani-

mals, forces up the honey into that cavity. The hungry bee knows how to take advantage of this hospitable invitation. With the point of its trunk it sucks the honey from the other's mouth. When not stopped on the road, the bee proceeds to the hive, and in the same manner offers its honey to those who are at work, as if it meant to prevent the necessity of quitting their labour in order to go in quest of food. In bad weather, the bees feed upon the honey laid up in open cells; but they never touch these reservoirs when their companions are enabled to supply them with fresh honey from the fields. But the mouths of those cells which are destined for preserving honey during winter, they always cover with a lid or thin plate of wax.

We shall now give some account of the ingenious Mr. Debrow's discoveries concerning the sex of bees, and the manner in which their species is multiplied*. It was almost universally believed, both by ancients and moderns, that bees, like other animals, propagated by an actual intercourse of the male and female, though it never could be perceived by the most attentive observers. Pliny remarks, that *apium coitus visus est nunquam*; and even the indefatigable Reaumur, notwithstanding the many minute researches and experiments he made concerning every part of the economy of bees, and though he represents the mother, or queen-bee, as a perfect Messalina, could never detect an actual intercourse. From this singular circumstance, Miraldi, in his observations upon bees†, conjectured that the eggs of bees, like those of fishes, were impregnated after they were deposited in the cells by the mother. He was farther confirmed in this opinion, by uniformly observing that a whitish liquid substance surrounded each egg

which turned out to be fertile; but that those eggs round which no substance was to be found were always barren. The working bees, or those which collect from flowers the materials of wax, have generally been considered as belonging to neither sex. But Mr. Schirach, a German naturalist, in his *History of the Queen of the Bees*, maintains, that all the common bees are females, in a disguised or barren state; that the organs which distinguish the sex, and particularly the ovaria, are either obliterated, or, on account of their minuteness, have not hitherto been discovered; that, in the early period of its existence, every one of these bees is capable of becoming a queen bee, if the community choose to nurse it in a certain manner, and to raise it to that distinguished rank; and that the queen bee lays only two kinds of eggs, namely, those that are to produce drones or males, and those from which the working bees are to proceed.

The conjecture of Maraldi concerning the impregnation of the eggs after they are deposited in the cells, as well as the observations of Mr. Schirach concerning the sex of the working bees, have been completely verified by the experiments of Mr. Debrow. Both Maraldi and Reaumur had long ago discovered, that, in every hive, beside the large drones, there are males or drones as small as the working bees. By means of glass-hives, Mr. Debrow observed, that the queen bee begins to deposit her eggs in the cells on the fourth or fifth day after the bees begin to work. On the first or second day after the eggs are placed in the cells, he perceived several bees sinking the posterior parts of their bodies into each cell, where they continued but a short time. After they had retired, he saw plainly with the naked eye a small quantity of whitish liquor left in the bottom of each cell that contained an egg. Next day he found that this liquor was absorbed into the egg, which, on the fourth day, is

* See Philosophical Transactions, ann. 1777, part I, page 15.

† Hist. de l'Acad. de Scien. ann. 1712.

hatched. When the worms escape from the eggs, they are fed for eight or ten days with honey by the working bees. After that period they shut up the mouths of the cells, where the worms continue inclosed for ten days more, during which time they undergo their different transformations.

"I immersed," says Mr. De-braw, "all the bees in water; and, when they appeared to be in a senseless state, I gently pressed every one of them between my fingers, in order to distinguish those armed with stings from those that had none, which last I might suspect to be males. Of these I found sixty-seven, exactly of the size of common bees, yielding a little whitish liquor on being pressed between the fingers. I killed every one, and replaced the swarm in a glass hive, where they immediately applied again to the work of making cells; and, on the fourth or fifth day, very early in the morning, I had the pleasure to see the queen bee depositing her eggs in those cells, which she did by placing the posterior part of her body in each of them. I continued to watch most part of the ensuing days, but could discover nothing of what I had seen before. The eggs, after the fourth day, instead of changing in the manner of caterpillars, were found in the same state they were in the first day." The next day about noon, the whole swarm forsook the hive, probably because the animals perceived that, without the assistance of males, they were unqualified to multiply their species. To show the necessity of the eggs being fecundated by the male influence, Mr. De-braw relates an experiment still more decisive.

"I took," says he, "the brood-comb, which, as I observed before, had not been impregnated; I divided it into two parts; one I placed under a glass bell, No. 1, with honey-comb for the bees' food; I took care to leave a queen, but no drones, among the common bees I confined in it. The other piece of brood-

comb I placed under another glass bell, No. 2, with a few drones, a queen, and a number of common bees proportioned to the size of the glass. The result was, that, in the glass No. 1 no impregnation happened; the eggs remained in the same state they were in when put into the glass; and, upon giving the bees their liberty on the seventh day, they all flew away, as was found to be the case in the former experiment; whereas, in the glass No. 2, I saw, the very day after the bees had been put under it, the impregnation of the eggs by the drones in every cell containing eggs; the bees did not leave their hive on receiving their liberty; and, in the course of twenty days, every egg underwent all the above mentioned necessary changes, and formed a pretty numerous young colony, in which I was not a little startled to find *two* queens."

The appearance of a new queen in a hive where there was no large or royal cell, made Mr. De-braw conjecture that the bees are capable, by some particular means, of transforming a common subject into a queen. To ascertain the truth of this conjecture, he provided himself with four glass hives, into each of which he put a piece of brood-comb taken from an old hive. These pieces of brood-comb contained eggs, worms, and nymphs. In each hive he confined a sufficient number of common bees, and some drones or males, but took care that there should be no queen.

"The bees," Mr. De-braw remarks, "finding themselves without a queen, made a strange buzzing noise, which lasted near two days, at the end of which they settled, and betook themselves to work. On the fourth day, I perceived in each hive the beginning of a royal cell, a *certain indication that one of the inclosed worms would soon be converted into a queen*. The construction of the royal cell being nearly accomplished, I ventured to leave an opening for the bees to get out, and found that they returned as re-

gularly as they do in common hives, and showed no inclination to leave their habitation. But, to be brief, at the end of twenty days, I observed four young queens among the new progeny."

To these experiments of Mr. Debraw, it was objected, that the queen-bee, beside the eggs which she deposits in the royal cells, might likewise have laid royal or female eggs in the common cells; and that the pieces of brood-comb so successfully employed in his experiments for the production of a queen, had always happened to contain one of these royal eggs, or rather one of the worms proceeding from them. But this objection was afterwards removed by many other accurate experiments, the results of which were uniformly the same; and the objectors to Mr. Debraw's discovery candidly admit, that, when the community stands in need of a queen, the working bees possess the power of raising a common subject to the throne; and that every worm of the hive is capable, under a certain course of management, of becoming the mother of a numerous progeny. This metamorphosis seems to be chiefly accomplished by a peculiar nourishment carefully administered to the worm by the working-bees, by which, and perhaps by other unknown means, the female organs, the germs of which previously existed in the embryo, are expanded, and all those differences in form and size, that so remarkably distinguish the queen from the working-bees, are produced.

It is always a fortunate circumstance when discoveries, which at first seem calculated solely to gratify curiosity, are capable of being turned to the advantage of society. Mr. Debraw, accordingly, has not failed to point out the advantages that may be derived from his researches into the economy and nature of bees. By his discovery, we are taught an easy mode of multiplying, without end, swarms, or new colonies, of these useful insects.

The practice of this new art, Mr. Schirach informs us, has already extended itself through Upper Lusatia, the Palatinate, Bohemia, Bavaria, Silesia, and Poland. In some of these countries, it has excited the attention, and acquired the patronage of government. The late empress of Russia, who never lost sight of a single article by which the industry, and, of course, the happiness of her subjects could be augmented, sent a proper person to Klein Bautzen, to be instructed in the general principles, and to learn all the minutiae of this new and important art.

For the Literary Magazine.

OMAR AND FATIMA; OR, THE
APOTHECARY OF ISPAHAN.

A Persian Tale.

(Continued from page 64.)

WE have just seen the venerable faquir Ismael, who, when dressed in the Persian robes, appeared a beautiful youth of about eighteen, settled in the house of the sage Nadir. It will easily be conjectured that the day was too short to supply him with all the necessaries which his situation required, and that he was obliged to borrow many hours of the succeeding ones for his excursions among the shops. In these he was accompanied sometimes by the apothecary, his host, and sometimes by Tamira; as he wanted their judgments in his different purchases.

Since the house in which he resided had been erected, it had never been so frequented. What with porters and tradesmen bringing articles, either purchased or for inspection, the shop was scarcely ever empty.

Nadir, in whose bosom frugality was hereditary, and which poverty had nurtured into a habit, discerned, or imagined that he discerned,

among the purchases of the youth, many which he could not deem of the first necessity, and others which in his best judgment he thought mere superfluities: he therefore one day, when a large cargo of the most beautiful porcelain arrived, under the auspices of Tamira, took the liberty to address him in the following words:

"Son Ismael! (for, as you no longer appear in that holy character which you assumed when first we met, I shall address you by that title) it has been frequently stated by the sage of Zulpha, that the happiness (or, more correctly speaking, the distinction) of persons of elevated rank, seems to consist in those (its possessors) being surrounded by a variety of appendages, useless to the world, and perhaps burthensome to themselves. From the progress which you have made in collecting a number of articles which, though perhaps curious, are frivolous, and, although costly, effeminate, I should judge that you were a young man of a light mind; and from your fondness for toys, trinkets, and other fashionable superfluities, that your birth was more elevated than you have stated it to be.

"With respect to the first of these positions, your conversation convinces me to the contrary; and regarding the latter, it strikes me, that perhaps your passion for show is intuitive, and may have arisen from your fondness for the professional productions of your father. But you must consider, that the inhabitants of this city are a grave people, and my profession of the gravest cast. I must, therefore, repress your desire for splendid trifles; and, to restrain this idle waste of money, remind you, that the mines of Golconda, however deep, may be exhausted. You now seem to have every thing you want."

"No!" replied Ismael, "there are three articles more."

"Three articles more! What are those?"

"Three slaves," continued Ismael.

"To these," added Nadir, "if they were useful, I should have no great objection. However, as you best know the stile of life to which you have been used, and the kind of attendance which you require, I shall in this trust to your discretion."

These slaves, two male and one female, were consequently procured. Tamira, who had become the chief confidante of Ismael, was pleased to be eased of a considerable deal of labour. Nor was the apothecary, however he might have objected at first, in the end dissatisfied, as they were directed to be equally observant of him as of their master.

It seemed as if good fortune followed the footsteps of Ismael; for since he had been an inmate the business of Nadir had exceedingly increased.

The appearance of this young Golcondian became every day more splendid; his taste appeared every day more refined; and his person, which was a perfect model of male beauty, became every day more fascinating. Under the auspices of Nadir, he took a delight in visiting all the places of public resort in Ispahan. His curiosity extended still further; for he became tinctured with the ideas of the company to which his host introduced him, and consequently an antiquarian, and connoisseur. Arduous in every thing, in the first of these characters he explored all the vestiges of the magnificence of the ancient sophys, at least from Darius downward; and in the second, collected such a number of specimens of the arts and literature, that the honest apothecary, at every excursion, trembled as much for the tomans of his guest as he did for the safety of the edifice that was to contain their product. He therefore frequently exclaimed, "If this young man is not the possessor of one of his native mines, it is easy to foresee the end of all this magnificence, erudition, and *virtu*. However, he restrained himself, till black Absalom, the jeweller, one day brought home a

sabre, the hilt of which was set with diamonds, and the belt ornamented with the same brilliant materials.

There was no bearing this extravagant splendour; all the frugal ideas of this sober son of Esculapius recurred to his mind. He looked around at the still meagre, though improved, appearance of his own shelves, and exclaimed, "This brilliant article alone would furnish a house and shop superb as those of the sage Job Ben Abram, who has the supreme happiness to administer potions and lotions to our sovereign lord the sublime and immortal sophy!"

Taking this sabre for the text, he had just prepared a lecture upon extravagance and profusion, when the gay, but good-natured, Ismael, for whose service it was intended, came to receive the benefit of it. Presuming this well studied discourse would have a wonderful effect, he began, "One of the greatest and most contaminating vices that can inhabit the human mind, son Ismael, is vanity. I aver and will maintain this proposition against Hassen, at the head of all the disciples of Zoroaster, against Ki, and all the followers of Confucius, and also the universities of Ispahan and Delhi, if they were disposed to controvert it. Upon this point I fix myself; and repeat, that vanity is——"

At this instant, to the relief of Ismael and our mortification, a eunuch, whose complexion was as black as his habit, entered the shop, and said, "Sage Nadir! whose philosophy and medical skill, I have this day heard from a lady destined to have the happiness of becoming your patient, are not only the admiration of Ispahan but of the world, the daughter of the omrah Mirza now languishes on the couch of sickness, and earnestly demands your assistance in preference to a host of physicians sent for by her father."

The apothecary, in his astonishment at this young lady's understanding, forgot his lecture upon vanity; while Ismael availed him-

self of this opportunity to retire to his own chamber.

"What," said Nadir, "is the disorder of the daughter of Mirza?"

"Impatience!" returned the eunuch.

"This, though a complaint common enough to young ladies, is, I fear, beyond the reach of my medical skill. How has she been treated by the physicians?"

"You should rather ask," replied the eunuch, "how they have been treated by her. I am sure they have hitherto been the *patients*. She has refused every medicine that they have administered."

"Then I do not wonder that she is ill," replied Nadir.

"She remained totally silent for some time, and would not answer their enquiries. Her father, whose darling child and only daughter she is, indulges her in every thing, and forces every one to comply with her perverse humours: so that, in the end, she has had all those venerable persons turned out of doors."

"Monstrous obstinacy! strange perversion of the human mind!" exclaimed Nadir.

"And what is more extraordinary," continued the eunuch, "she now declares that no one shall prescribe to her but yourself. How, immured as she has till lately been, she could even hear of your name, has been——"

"Hear of my name!" cried the apothecary, interrupting him, "there is nothing so very singular in that! my name, Mr. eunuch, is pretty well known!"

"I believe that she is mad," said the eunuch.

"I should be of the same opinion," returned Nadir, "had not her sending for me in preference to any of my learned brethren been so decisive a proof of her mental sanity: therefore, Tamira, help me to my black silk caftan and bolster turban; I will wait on her immediately."

The palace of the omrah Mirza was near the imperial seat of Ispahan, and consequently at no great

distance from the residence of Nadir. However, the apothecary's impatience was almost equal to that of his patient before he arrived at the gate, as the old eunuch marched with a slow and stately pace, and seemed to devote much time to deliberation, consideration, and conversation. In the course of this walk, he had made his companion acquainted not only with the immense riches of his lord, the valour of his son, and his absence with the army, but also with the beauty of Zulima, his daughter, her former affability and good humour, and the total change that had lately taken place in her temper and disposition.

"This kind of change, this fluctuation in the female mind," said Nadir, "can only be clearly explained by recurring to two principles, which we will take this opportunity to examine; and first—but though I like your attention, you need not stop!"—

"We are," said the eunuch, "at the private door of the palace of Mirza."

"What a pity," cried the apothecary, as he entered a marble vestibule, "that I could not have explained to you the causes which combine to produce those fluctuations of temper, those changes of disposition, sometimes observable in the female system!"

"The father of Zulima, to whom I must introduce you," said the eunuch, "will probably be more edified."

"This, my lord," he continued, when he ushered the sage into an apartment splendid as the habitations of the faithful in the seventh paradise, "is the venerable and learned Nadir, whom the beautiful Zulima now desires to see."

"I am happy," said Mirza, "to behold a man, whom the result of this morning's enquiry informs me is another instance, added to many, that fortune is frequently at variance with talents and virtue. I wish, sage Nadir, that your worldly were equal to your mental posses-

sions. Perform the cure which I expect from you; rescue my darling, the thread of my existence, my Zulima, from distraction; and be it my care to make those through your future life run more parallel."

"Of what, oh noble Mirza!" said Nadir, "does the lovely Zulima complain?"

"Of every thing and every person: to her slaves she is intolerable; to the prudent Tangra, who was her nurse, who has been to her a mother, she is haughty and intemperate; nay, she scarcely spares me: she has tired all the faculty."

"The faculty," cried Nadir, "should never be tired! Let me see my lovely patient, and I will exert my utmost skill to justify the good opinion she already entertains of me."

Zulima, who was indeed beauty itself personified, was reclined upon a sofa of crimson satin, highly ornamented, but the reflection from which scarcely overcame the paleness of her countenance. The redundancy of her tresses, which wandered unrestrained over her neck and bosom, and the disorder of her dress, betrayed evident symptoms of her disordered mind.

The arrival of the sage was, with the utmost caution, announced to her; yet she started. "Is Nadir come?" she cried, with precipitation: "I once thought that he would never have arrived. I have since altered that opinion, and think that he has flown on the wings of a butterfly—Alla protect me! this is not Nadir!"

"Certainly it is," said the nurse. "Would the eunuch Tamas have deceived you?"

"I say, and repeat it, this is not Nadir!" cried Zulima.

"How should you know," said Tangra, "having never seen him before?"

"I had forgotten that circumstance," added Zulima.

"I aver," cried the sage, advancing, "that I am Nadir the apothecary, the only son of Nadir the doctor; that there is no other of

my name and profession in Ispahan ; and further, that if any person has assumed them, let him be old or young, he is a counterfeit, and means to impose on the loveliest of her sex."

"I am now convinced," said Zulima, recovering herself; "you are perfectly right, most learned Nadir! and I intreat your pardon."

"She seems more collected since you have arrived," said Tangra.

"No doubt!" returned Nadir. "I think, from the few observations that I have already made, that I can answer for her cure."

"Let all, except Nadir, leave the room," said Zulima, whose penetrating eyes had for some time been fixed upon the sage.

"All!" cried Tangra; "you will surely suffer me to attend you."

"By no means!" returned Zulima, whose keen and animated glances seemed now again to indicate intellectual commotion.

"You must suffer her to have her way!" said Nadir.

"I will! I will!" exclaimed the young lady. "No one shall controul me!"

"No one will attempt it, most lovely and interesting Zulima! you waved your hand, and your attendants have all retired. Alla protect us! What do I see? the daughter of Mirza in tears!"

"What do you see? Oh, Nadir! you see before you a vile hypocrite!"

"A vile hypocrite!" repeated Nadir. "What strange turns there are in this disorder!"

"An abominable wretch!"

"Wretch!" said the apothecary, fixing her eyes upon her while she continued, "who has deceived her father, set at defiance the injunctions of her religion and the laws of her country, and dared to suffer a passion for a youth of the name of Nadir to take possession of her heart!"

"Is that all?" said the apothecary.

"All!" returned the lady.

"Yes?" he continued; "because though not so very a youth as you

are inclined to think, certainly not of an age to be insensible to attractions such as are now before me: therefore, if your cure depends upon me——"

"You!" exclaimed Zulima: "You are not the person I allude to!"

"Believe me, lovely Zulima, I am the only Nadir in Ispahan."

"Then I am more wretched than I even imagined. How have I been deceived?"

"Deceived!" said Nadir: "I thought just now that her senses had returned; but I perceive she again wanders."

"Yet," continued Zulima, "the gravity of your appearance; your age——"

"My age!" cried the Apothecary.

"The mild benevolence of your aspect——"

"The fit seems to have passed over," said Nadir.

"Inclines me to make you my confidant: therefore, most venerable Nadir! listen to me."

"Venerable!" said the sage to himself; "I am afraid it will be difficult to effect this cure."

"Well, listen to me."

"I could for ever listen to you, most lovely Zulima!"

"Come sit by me: now be all attention," she continued, holding up her finger. "The care of the matron whom you just now saw, Tangra, my nurse (for I still call her by that fond epithet), could only be equalled by the indulgence of my father and the love of my brother. I never knew my mother. Within the walls of this Haram, every object that could form the taste, improve the mind, or amuse and gratify the senses, was collected. I had no wish to wander beyond the bounds of its extensive gardens, until my father presented to me a Grecian slave of the name of Lesbia.

"Touched with her condition, I freely conversed with her, and found her genius as great as had been her misfortunes. The education she had received bespoke her

former rank in society. To her I became attached (nay, from my warmth of temper, I may say, devoted); but from her I one day heard a word then as much a stranger to my ears as the idea which it inspired was to my mind: this word was *liberty!*"

"A pretty important one," said Nadir.

"I found it so," returned Zulima, "from the ideas which it inspired; for, not satisfied with the histories which Lesbia constantly recited of the unconstrained piety of the Grecian matrons, and the unconstrained chastity of the Grecian virgins, they seemed to desire to take a still wider range, and, freed from the shackles in which my country's customs had confined the female mind and the female body, explore those places which I had only observed through the lattices of the carriage which conveyed me from the black marble palace, our winter, to the white marble palace, our summer residence. This desire I communicated to Tangra. She was amazed. My father was still more astonished; but, accustomed to indulge me in every thing, he permitted me to go abroad sometimes, attended only by the eunuchs and Lesbia. In the course of these excursions, it was my delight to visit the shops; which, I need not inform you, oh Nadir! exhibit so brilliant and magnificent a spectacle in this imperial city. A few days since, we, among others, called at that of an eminent Jew."

"What! Black Absalom?" said Nadir.

"The same," returned Zulima. "He was showing us his superb assemblage of jewels and tasteful trinkets, when a young man entered. Our veils were down; therefore we continued in the shop, struck with admiration——"

"Of the young man, or the trinkets?" said Nadir.

"As," continued Zulima, "I mean to unbosom myself to you with the utmost sincerity, I will freely confess that the sight of this youth

at once obliterated from my mind all that Absalom had said respecting the trinkets, nay, the trinkets themselves. Never had I seen a man so perfectly beautiful. My brother, although he has been esteemed a model of perfection, is, in features and form, much his inferior. He was examining a brilliant sabre, therefore I had time to contemplate him, but without exchanging a word I left the shop. The next day I sent Lesbia to enquire his name. How, or from what source, she derived her intelligence, I have never asked; but she informed me, that his name was Nadir, an apothecary, living in the Meydan.

"She did me a great deal of honour," said Nadir; "but although, for a little man, not absolutely despicable, she must have wanted eyes if she had mistaken me for my guest, who is, without exception, I think, the most beautiful youth in the kingdom."

"Is he a Persian?"

"He is from the capital of Golconda," said Nadir.

"His birth is unquestionably noble?"

"Brilliant," he continued, "it certainly is; for his father is an eminent jeweller and diamond merchant in— But I dare say no more. In fact, I have said all I know, except that some domestic disagreement obliged him to travel; and I hope that some pleasing circumstance will induce him to reside with me; for since his arrival every thing has prospered in my house; and then he is so affable, so even tempered, so generous, so truly benevolent— Merciful Alla!—Nurse!—Lesbia!—Slaves!—Attend! your lady faints!"

This exclamation of Nadir's soon filled the apartment with attendants, some of whom immediately communicated the event that caused it to Mirza, who sent for Nadir in an instant.

"How do you find your patient?" cried the afflicted father.

"Better than I expected!" returned the apothecary.

"Better! why I hear that she is now in a fit."

"I mean worse," said Nadir, "for the present; but she will be better hereafter."

"Heaven and earth! how you answer me! Are these fits the effects of her disorder?"

"Yes!"

"Then you think she is far gone?"

"Very far gone indeed," returned Nadir.

"You do not," said Mirza, "deem her incurable?"

"No? I have a medicine at home that I think will cure her!"

"Then," cried Mirza, "fly for it instantly!"

"I cannot," continued Nadir, "fly, nor can I very speedily produce it: I must first see what turn her disorder has taken, as her favourite maid has just whispered me, that she has in some degree recovered from her fit."

"Be sure you prescribe that medicine——"

"I will, if I should deem it prudent."

"And," continued Mirza, "see her take it yourself; for she threw the last prescription out of the window."

"She will not throw my medicine out of the window, I'll engage."

"No!" said Lesbia, who just entered, "my lady has too great a regard for whatsoever comes from the house of the sage Nadir; for she says, oh noble Mirza! that he is not only the tenderest, the most sagacious, but the very best physician that she ever had in her life; and that she will follow his advice in every thing; and has no doubt but, through his scientific influence, her cure will soon be complete."

"This," said Mirza, "is indeed surprising!"

"Not at all, oh Mirza!" replied Nadir: "when a patient is properly treated, these turns are common. This young lady seems so perfectly to have recovered her senses, that I will only look in upon her to take my leave for the present. Tamas the

eunuch is to call on me this evening. To-morrow I will see her again." * * * *

"I just return, noble Mirza, to tell you I have seen her, and we seem to be in a good way."

"Rest"—"Light food"—"Gentle exercise"—"Air"—"The mind to be unbent with moderate amusement."—"Music"—"Reading"—and—hem—a hem—"I have no doubt but all will go well."

(To be continued.)

For the Literary Magazine.

NEW RELIGIOUS SECT.

A SECT has lately been discovered in Silesia, which, though they have existed upwards of a century, have not attracted the public attention till lately. This concealment has been chiefly occasioned by their peculiar and fundamental maxims, which enjoin them to conform outwardly to the rites and ceremonies of other sects, when required to do so by considerations of personal ease and safety; to abstain from attempting to make any converts from the followers of a different faith, and to communicate their tenets only in the way of education, to their own children, or to infants consigned by poverty or death of natural protectors to their care. In their modes of worship they interpret strictly that injunction in scripture, *When you pray, go into your closets, and pray in secret*, &c. Worship, according to them, is acceptable, when offered in sincerity, by whomsoever and in whatsoever manner offered, but the precept of Christ, rightly understood, enjoins solitary and secret prayer. Accordingly, they abjure all assemblies and churches for religious worship. Their forms of devotion are a set of hymns in Latin, composed by their founder, in which the topics mentioned in the *Lord's prayer* are strictly adhered to; but these hymns

are regarded by them as convenient, but not obligatory, and they hold themselves at liberty to follow any other mode, or merely to muse in silence, provided the topics of their meditation are those included in the *Lord's prayer*, and provided it be done in secret. This method including their whole practical religion, they, of course, reject all festivals, solemn days, consecrated places, and all rites, including baptism and the eucharist. The latter they consider themselves as celebrating whenever they eat and drink with recollections of Christ, this being, according to them, the true meaning of the command, *Do this in remembrance of me*. In their dress, language, manners, and social conduct, they conform to the prevailing customs of their country. Their system enjoins no forms of burial, marriage, &c., peculiar to themselves. These are points indifferent in themselves, and duty prescribes to conform to custom, because it is the custom, and because a departure from it would only occasion trouble and suspicion. In their moral and social conduct they are generally distinguished by good sense, industry, and benevolence. Their belief on doctrinal points, such as the nature of Christ, and the state of souls after death, is not well understood, but they represent these points as disconnected with any practical consequences: as mere questions in history and metaphysics, about which a man is concerned to enquire for the sake of truth, but not for the sake of any mode of external conduct to be engrafted on it. Good behaviour in private life, and a sincere belief, whatever its objects be, they deem sufficient to insure the approbation of the Deity.

For the Literary Magazine.

ON THE STOMACH OF THE
CAMEL.

MR. EVERARD HOME lately
laid before the Royal Society of Lon-

don, observations on the camel's stomach, respecting the water it contains, and the reservoirs in which that fluid is enclosed.

The camel, the subject of these observations, was a female brought from Arabia; it was 28 years old, and said to have been 20 years in England. The animal was worn out, and in a state of great debility, before it came into the hands of the college of surgeons, and they put an end to its miseries by means of a narrow double-edged poniard passed in between the skull and first vertebrae of the neck: in this way the medulla oblongata was divided, and the animal instantaneously deprived of sensibility.

In the common mode of *pithing* an animal, the medulla spinalis only is cut through, and the head remains alive, which renders it the most cruel mode of killing an animal that could be invented.

The stomachs of this animal were the first things examined, and, on measuring the capacities of these different reservoirs in the dead body, the anterior cells of the first stomach were found capable of containing one quart of water, when poured into them. The posterior cells, three quarts. One of the largest cells held two ounces and a half, and the second stomach four quarts. This is much short of what those cavities can contain in the living animal, since there are large muscles covering the bottom of the cellular structure, to force out the water, which must have been contracted immediately after death, and by that means had diminished the cavities. The camel, when it drinks, conducts the water in a pure state into the second stomach; part of it is retained there, and the rest runs over into the cellular structure of the first, acquiring a yellow colour. That the second stomach in the camel contained water, had been generally asserted; but by what means the water was kept separate from the food had never been explained, nor had any other part been discovered by which the common offices of a

second stomach could be performed. To this Mr. Hunter did not give credit, but considered the second stomach of the camel to correspond in its use with that of other ruminants. This difference of opinion led Mr. Home to examine accurately the camel's stomach, and also the stomachs of those ruminants which have horns, in order to determine the peculiar offices belonging to their different cavities.

The best mode of conducting this enquiry is to describe the different stomachs of the bullock, and then those of the camel, and afterwards to point out the peculiarities by which this animal is enabled to go a longer time without drink than others, and thereby fitted to live in those sandy deserts of which it is the natural inhabitant.

When the first stomach of the bullock is laid open, and the solid contents removed, the cavity appears to be made up of two large compartments, separated from each other by two transverse bands of considerable thickness, and the second stomach forms a pouch or lesser compartment, on the anterior part of it, somewhat to the right of the *œsophagus*, so that the first and second stomach are both included in one general cavity, and lined with a cuticle. The *œsophagus* appears to open into the first stomach, but on each side of its termination there is a muscular ridge, projecting from the coats of the first stomach, so as to form a channel into the second. These muscular bands are continued on to the orifice of the third stomach, in which they are lost. The food can readily pass from the *œsophagus*, either into the general cavity of the first stomach or into the second, which last is peculiarly fitted by its situation, and the muscular power of its coats, both to throw up its contents into the mouth, and to receive a supply from the general cavity of the first stomach, at the will of the animal. The second stomach contains the same food as the first, only more moist; it must therefore be considered as a

shelf from which the food may be regurgitated along the canal, continued from the *œsophagus*. There is indeed no other mode by which this can be effected, since it is hardly possible for the animal to separate small portions from the surface of the mass of dry food in the first stomach, and force it up into the mouth. It is also ascertained that water is received into the second stomach while the animal is drinking, and is thus enabled to have its contents always in a proper state of moisture to admit of its being readily thrown up into the mouth for rumination, which seems to be the true office of this stomach, and not to receive the food after that process has been gone through.

When the food is swallowed the second time, the orifice of the third stomach is brought forward by the muscular bands which terminate in it, so as to oppose the end of the *œsophagus*, and receive the morsel without the smallest risk of its dropping into the second stomach. The third stomach of the bullock is a cavity, in the form of a crescent, containing 24 septa, 7 inches broad; about 23, 4 inches broad; and about 48 of 1½ inch at their broadest part. These are thus arranged: one broad one, with one of the narrowest next it; then a narrow one, with one of the narrowest next it; then a broad one and so on. The septa are thin membranes, and have their origin in the orifice leading from the *œsophagus*, so that whatever passes into the cavity must fall between these septa, and describe three-fourths of a circle, before it can arrive at the orifice leading to the true stomach, which is so near the other, that the distance between them does not exceed three inches: and therefore the direct line from the termination of the *œsophagus* to the orifice of the fourth stomach is only of that length. While the young calf is fed on milk, that liquor, which does not require to be ruminated, is conveyed directly to the fourth stomach, not passing through the plicæ of the third; and after-

wards the solid food is directed into that cavity, by the plicæ separated from each other. The third stomach opens into the fourth by a projecting valvular orifice, and the cuticular lining terminates exactly on the edge of this valve, covering only that half of it which belongs to the third. The fourth or true digesting stomach is about 2 feet 9 inches long; its internal membrane has 18 plicæ, beginning at its orifice, and continued down, increasing to a great degree its internal surface: beyond these the internal membrane is thrown into rugæ which follow a very serpentine direction, and close to the pylorus there is a glandular projection, one end of which is opposed to the orifice, and closes it up, when in a collapsed state.

The camel's stomach anteriorly forms one large bag, but when laid open is forced to be divided into two compartments on its posterior part, by a strong ridge which passes down from the right side of the orifice of the œsophagus in a longitudinal direction. On the left side of the termination of the œsophagus, a broad muscular band has its origin, from the coats of the first stomach, and passes down in the form of a solid parallel to the great ridge, till it enters the orifice of the second stomach. This band on one side, and the great ridge on the other, form a canal, which leads from the œsophagus down to the cellular structure in the lower part of the first stomach. The orifice of the second stomach, when this muscle is not in action, is nearly shut, and at right angles to the side of the first. Its cavity is a pendulous bag with rows of cells, above which, between them and the muscle which passes along the upper part of the stomach, is a smooth surface extending from the orifice of this stomach to the termination of the third. Hence it is evident that the second stomach neither receives the solid food in the first instance as the bullock, nor does it afterwards pass into its cavity or cellular structure. The food first passes into the general cavity of the first

stomach, and that portion of it which lies in the recess immediately below the entrance of the œsophagus under which the cells are situated, is kept moist, and is readily returned into the mouth, so that the cellular portion of the first stomach in the camel performs the same office as the second in the ruminants with horns. While the camel is drinking, the action of the muscular band opens the orifice of the second stomach, at the same time that it directs the water into it; and when the cells of that cavity are full, the rest runs off into the cellular structure of the first stomach immediately below, and afterwards into the general cavity: it seems that camels, when accustomed to go long journeys, in which they are kept without water, acquire the power of dilating the cells, so as to make them contain a more than ordinary quantity as a supply for their journey. When the cud has been chewed, it has to pass along the upper part of the second stomach before it can reach the third; which is thus managed: at the time that the cud is to pass from the mouth, the muscular band contracts with so much force, that it not only opens the orifice of the second stomach, but acting on the mouth of the third, brings it forwards into the second, by which means the muscular ridges that separate the rows of cells are brought close together, so as to exclude these cavities from the canal, through which the end passes. It is this beautiful and very curious mechanism which forms the peculiar character of the stomach of the camel, dromedary, and lama, fitting them to live in the sandy deserts, where the supplies of water are so precarious.

In the bullock are three stomachs for the preparation of food, and one for digestion. In the camel there is one stomach fitted to answer the purposes of two of the bullock; a second is employed as a reservoir for water, having nothing to do with the preparation of the food; a third is so small and simple in its struc-

ture, that it is not easy to ascertain its particular office.

The following are the gradations of animals with ruminating stomachs: the ruminants with horns, as the ox, sheep, &c., have two preparatory stomachs for food previously to rumination, and one for the food after rumination before it is digested. The ruminants without horns, as the camel, dromedary, &c., have one preparatory stomach before rumination, and one in which the cud can be afterwards retained before it goes into the digesting stomach. Those animals who eat the same kind of food with the ruminants, and yet do not ruminate, as the horse and ass, have only one stomach, but part of it is lined with a cuticle, in which the food is first deposited, and by remaining there some time is rendered more digestible, when received into the digesting portion.

The ruminants with horns have molares in both jaws, and incisores only in the lower jaw. The ruminants without horns, have, in addition to these, what may be called fighting-teeth, or a substitute for horns. These are tusks in both jaws, intermediate teeth between the molares and tusks, and in the upper jaw two small teeth anterior to the tusks; none of which can be of any use in eating. The camelopardis forms an intermediate link in these respects. It has short horns, and no tusks.

For the Literary Magazine.

ACCOUNT OF A DIVING BOAT.

CITIZEN St. Aubin, a man of letters at Paris, and member of the tribunate, has given the following account of the *bateau plongeur*, a diving boat, lately discovered by Mr. Robert Fulton, the inventor of the torpedo and steam boat.

I have, says he, just been to inspect the plan and section of a nautilus, or diving boat, invented by

Mr. Fulton, similar to that with which he lately made his curious and interesting experiment at Havre and Brest.

The diving boat, in the construction of which he is now employed, will be capacious enough to contain eight men, and provisions enough for twenty days, and will be of sufficient strength and power to enable him to plunge 100 feet under water, if necessary. He has contrived a reservoir for air, which will enable eight men to remain under water for eight hours. When the boat is above water, it has two sails, and looks just like a common boat. When she is to dive, the masts and sails are struck.

In making his experiments at Havre, Mr. Fulton not only remained a whole hour under water with three of his companions, but kept his boat parallel to the horizon at any given depth. He proved that the compass points as correctly under water as on the surface, and that, while under water, the boat made way at the rate of half a league an hour, by means contrived for that purpose.

It is not twenty years since all Europe was astonished at the first ascension of men in balloons: perhaps in a few years they will not be less surprised to see a flotilla of diving boats, which, on a given signal, shall, to avoid the pursuit of an enemy, plunge under water, and rise again several leagues from the place where they descended.

The invention of balloons has hitherto been of no advantage, because no means have been found to direct their course. But if such means could be discovered, what would become of camps, cannon, fortresses, and the whole art of war?

But if we have not succeeded in steering the balloon, and even were it impossible to attain that object, the case is different with the diving boat, which can be conducted under water in the same manner as upon the surface. It has the advantage of sailing like a common boat, and

also of diving when it is pursued. With these qualities it is fit for carrying secret orders, to succour a blockaded port, and to examine the force and position of an enemy in their own harbours. These are sure and evident benefits, which the diving boat at present promises. But who can see all the consequences of this discovery, or the improvements of which it susceptible? Mr. Fulton has already added to his boat a machine, by means of which he blew up a large boat in the port of Brest; and if, by future experiments, the same effect could be produced on frigates or ships of the line, what will become of maritime wars, and where will sailors be found to man ships of war, when it is a physical certainty, that they may every moment be blown into the air by means of a diving boat, against which no human foresight can guard them?

For the Literary Magazine.

SHOWERS OF BLOOD.

AMONG many other prodigies which have terrified nations, *showers of blood* have been enumerated by historians. These showers of blood were supposed to portend great and calamitous events, as wars, the destruction of cities, and the overthrow of empires. About the beginning of July, in the year 1608, one of these pretended showers of blood fell in the suburbs of Aix, and for several miles round. This supposed shower of blood would probably have been transmitted to us as a great and real prodigy, if Aix had not then been possessed of a philosopher, who, amidst other species of knowledge, did not neglect the operations and economy of insects. This philosopher was M. de Peiresc, whose life is written by Gassendi. This life contains a number of curious facts and observations. Among others, M. de Peiresc discovered the cause

of the pretended shower of blood at Aix, which had created so general an alarm. About the beginning of July, the walls of a church-yard adjacent to the city, and particularly the walls of the small villages in the neighbourhood, were observed to be spotted with large drops of a blood-coloured liquid. The people, as well as some theologians, considered those drops as the operation of sorcerers, or of the devil himself. M. de Peiresc, about that time, had picked up a large and beautiful chrysalis, which he laid in a box. Immediately after its transformation into the butterfly state, M. de Peiresc remarked, that it had left a drop of blood-coloured liquor on the bottom of the box, and that this drop, or stain, was as large as a French sou. The red stains on the walls, on stones near the highways, and in the fields, were found to be perfectly similar to that on the bottom of M. de Peiresc's box. He now no longer hesitated to pronounce, that all those blood-coloured stains, wherever they appeared, proceeded from the same cause. The prodigious number of butterflies which he, at the same time, saw flying in the air, confirmed his original idea. He likewise observed, that the drops of the miraculous rain were never found in the middle of the city; that they appeared only in places bordering upon the country; and that they never fell upon the tops of houses, or upon walls more elevated than the height to which butterflies generally rise. What M. de Peiresc saw himself, he showed to many persons of knowledge, or of curiosity, and established it as an incontestible fact, that the pretended drops of blood were, in reality, drops of a red liquor deposited by butterflies.

To the same cause M. de Peiresc attributes some other showers of blood related by historians; and it is worthy of remark, that all of them happened in the warm seasons of the year, when butterflies are most numerous. Among others, Gregory of Tours mentions a show-

er of blood which fell, in the time of Childebert, in different parts of Paris, and upon a certain house in the territory of Senlis; and, about the end of the month of June, another likewise fell, under the reign of King Robert.

It has been remarked, that almost all the butterflies which proceed from certain species of hairy caterpillars void large drops of excrement, which have the colour of blood. The hairy caterpillar that feeds upon the leaves of the elm-tree, after its transformation, emits drops, the colour of which is of a more deep red than that of blood; and, after being dried, their colour approaches to that of carmine. From another caterpillar of the elm, which is much larger, and much more common than the former, proceeds a butterfly, that, immediately after its transformation, emits a great quantity of red excrement. This species of caterpillar, in particular years, is so numerous, that it lays bare the whole trees in certain districts. Myriads of them are transformed into chrysalids about the end of May or beginning of June. When about to undergo their metamorphosis, they often attach themselves to the walls, and even enter into the country houses. If these butterflies were all brought forth at the same time, and flew in the same direction, their number would be sufficient to form small clouds, to cover the stones, &c., of particular districts with blood-coloured spots, and to convince those who wish to fright themselves, and to see prodigies, that a shower of blood had fallen during the night. Some of those hairy caterpillars which live in society upon nettles, likewise emit an excrementitious matter of a red colour. A thousand examples of the same kind might be enumerated. Hence the notion of miraculous or portentous showers of blood should be for ever banished from the minds of men.

We not only read of showers, but, what seems to be more unaccountable, of fountains running occasion-

ally with blood instead of water. Sir David Dalrymple, one of the senators of the college of justice in Scotland, a gentleman not more distinguished by his learning and deep research, than by his scrupulous integrity and propriety of conduct, relates, in his *Annals of Scotland**, upon the authority of Hoveden and Benedictus Abbas, that in the year 1184, "a fountain near Kilwinning†, in the shire of Air, ran blood for eight days and eight nights without intermission. This portent had frequently appeared, but never for so long a space. In the opinion of the people of the country, it prognosticated the effusion of blood. Benedictus Abbas, and R. Hoveden, relate the story of this portent with perfect credulity. Benedictus Abbas improves a little upon his brother; for he is positive that the fountain flowed with *pure* blood." If Kilwinning, like Aix, had possessed such a philosopher as Peiresc, the redness of the water, if ever it did appear, would have received a most satisfactory explanation.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE LIFE OF DR. ARMSTRONG.

JOHN ARMSTRONG, M. D., a poet and physician, was born, about 1709, at Castleton, in Roxburghshire, Scotland, where his father was minister. In his principal poem he has very pleasingly celebrated his native place, and the rivulet with which it is beautified.

Such the stream
On whose Arcadian banks I first drew
air,
Liddal; till now, except in Doric
lays,
Tun'd to her murmurs by her love-
sick swains,
Unknown in song; though not a pur-
er stream,

* Vol. I. page 298.

† A Scottish village.

Through meads more flow'ry, or
 more romantic groves,
 Rolls towards the western main, &c.
 ART OF HEALTH, BOOK III.

He was designed for the medical profession, and studied for that purpose in the university of Edinburgh, where he took his degree with reputation, in 1732. The subject of his inaugural thesis, was, *De Tabæ Purulenta*. He settled in London, where he appeared in the double capacity of author and physician; but his success in the former, as has frequently been the case, seems to have impeded his progress in the latter. His first publication, in 1735, was a humorous attack upon empirics, in the manner of Lucian, entitled "An Essay for abridging the Study of Physic; to which is added, a Dialogue between Hygeia, Mercury, and Pluto, relating to the practice of Physic, as it is managed by a certain illustrious Society; and an Epistle from Usbeck the Persian to Joshua Ward, Esq." In 1737 he published a serious professional piece "On the Venereal Disease;" and soon after it, a poem, entitled "The Economy of Love," which met with a success which was, probably, in the end, a source neither of satisfaction nor advantage to the author. It is an elegant and vigorous performance; but so warm in some of its descriptions, as to have incurred the general censure of licentiousness, which has excluded it from the most reputable collections of poetry. The author himself considerably pruned its luxuriations, in an edition printed in 1768.

In 1744, his capital work, the didactic poem on "the Art of Preserving Health," appeared, and raised his literary reputation to a height which his after-performances scarcely sustained. A poem "On Benevolence," in 1751, and another entitled "Taste, an Epistle to a young Critic," in 1753, showed that he continued to cultivate the muses, though with no extraordinary success. A volume, in prose, of "Sketches or Essays on various

Subjects," under the name of Launcelot Temple, Esq., in 1758, was better received by the public, who admired the humour and knowledge of the world which it displayed. The celebrated Mr. Wilkes, then his intimate acquaintance, was supposed to have contributed a share to this volume.

Dr. Armstrong had professional interest enough in 1760 to obtain the appointment of physician to the army in Germany. From that country he wrote, "Day: an epistle to John Wilkes, Esq." A reflection upon Churchill in this latter piece drew upon him a severe retaliation from that irritable bard in his "Journey." Party now ran so high, especially that of the worst kind, national animosity, that a native of Scotland could scarcely keep up a friendly intercourse with an English oppositionist: accordingly, we find that the intimacy between Dr. Armstrong and Mr. Wilkes was dissolved about this time. At the peace of 1763, Armstrong returned to London, and resumed the practice of physic; but his habits and manners opposed an insurmountable bar against popular success. His mind was too lofty to stoop to intrigue; his manner was stiff and reserved; and his disposition was indolent. He continued occasionally rather to amuse than exert himself in literary productions, serious and humorous; sometimes, in the latter, mistaking oddity for wit, and indulging an unpleasant veil of vulgarity in expression and misanthropy in sentiment. These latter effusions are scarcely worth particularizing. In 1771, he made a journey to France and Italy, accompanied by the celebrated painter, Mr. Fuseli, who warmly attests the benevolence of his character. On this tour he took a last farewell, in Italy, of his friend Smollett, to whom he was much attached. He published a short account of this ramble, under the name of Launcelot Temple. His last publication, a pamphlet, in 1773, entitled, "Medical Essays," accounts, in a

splenetic manner, for the limited, practice he attained, and complains of his literary critics. He died in September 1779, leaving considerable savings from a very moderate income.

Armstrong was a man much beloved and respected by his intimates, and seems to have possessed great goodness of heart, as well as extensive knowledge and abilities; but a kind of morbid sensibility preyed on his temper, and a languid listlessness damped his intellectual efforts. The following lines in Thomson's "Castle of Indolence" are said to have been meant for his portraiture:—

With him was sometimes join'd, in
silent walk
(Profoundly silent—for they never
spoke),
One shyer still, who quite detested
talk;
Oft, stung by spleen, at once away he
broke,
To groves of pine, and broad o'er-
shadowing oak,
There, inly thrill'd, he wander'd all
alone,
And on himself his pensive fury
wroke:
He never utter'd word, save when
first shone
The glittering star of eve—"Thank
Heav'n! the day is done."

It should not be forgotten, that Armstrong contributed to this excellent poem the fine stanzas descriptive of the diseases to which the votaries of indolence finally become martyrs.

His reputation as a poet is almost solely founded on his "Art of Preserving Health;" for his other pieces scarcely rise above mediocrity. This may well rank among the first didactic poems in the English language; and though that class of poetry is not of the highest order, yet the variety incident to his subject has given him the opportunity of displaying his powers on some of the most elevated and interesting topics, and they are found fully adequate to the occasion. The work is adopted into the body of English

classics, and has often been printed, both separately and in collections.

The following character of Armstrong's stile and manner is given in an essay prefixed to an ornamented edition of the poem, printed for Cadell and Davies, 1795:—"It is distinguished by its simplicity, by a free use of words, which owe their strength to their plainness, by the rejection of ambitious ornaments, and a near approach to common phraseology. His sentences are generally short and easy; his sense clear and obvious. The full extent of his conceptions is taken in at the first glance; and there are no lofty mysteries to be unravelled by a repeated perusal. What keeps his language from being prosaic is the vigour of his sentiments. He thinks boldly, feels strongly, and therefore expresses himself poetically. Where the subject sinks, his style sinks with it; but he has for the most part excluded topics incapable either of vivid description or of the oratory of sentiment. He had from Nature a musical ear, whence his lines are scarcely ever harsh, though apparently without much study to render them smooth. On the whole, it may not be too much to assert, that no writer in blank verse can be found more free from stiffness and affectation, more energetic without harshness, and more dignified without formality."

For the Literary Magazine.

LITERARY, PHILOSOPHICAL, COMMERCIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL INTELLIGENCE.

WE have had occasion lately to announce the introduction of several important branches of manufactures in our country, in addition to the great number which have been gradually and almost imperceptibly progressing since the revolution, but we know of none which, as a collateral branch, affords us more real satisfaction, than the recent suc-

cessful effort of Mr. John Harrison, of this city, in the manufacture of oil of vitriol; after many unsuccessful attempts in other parts of the union, and, indeed, knowing as we do that many parts of the continent of Europe are still tributary to Great Britain for this important aid to their general manufactures, we think it no common cause of congratulation. The progress of science and the arts is eminently promoted by it: not a dyer, clothier, bleacher, calico printer, hatter, brass founder or paper maker, with many other artists, that do not require its aid in a greater or lesser degree; the science of medicine, the pursuits of the mineralogist and chemist, are all assisted by this important article. We therefore repeat, we think it no common cause of congratulation, that a native American, by a series of laborious exertions, has succeeded in rendering us independent of Britain, in one of the most useful aids to our infant manufactures. Connected with this branch, are others but little inferior in usefulness to the manufacturer; the muriatic acid, aquafortis, blue vitriol, or sulphate of copper, are all necessary to the dyer and calico printer, to the paper stainer and colour maker. The preparation of some important chemical medicines, for a supply of which we have heretofore been dependent upon foreign countries, renders the establishment still more interesting. Upon the whole, we know of no undertaking which embraces so many useful objects, or deserves the applause and support of the American people more than this.

—
Since the adoption and establishment of the federal government, great and numerous works of public utility have been undertaken and completed in the United States, works which depended on a laudable spirit of enterprize, as well as the expense of vast sums of money. At the period mentioned, the river Connecticut, from its head to its

mouth (excepting at fording places, at low water, in midsummer and autumn), was passable only by ferry boats, and those for the most part miserably attended. As a specimen of the progress of improvements in New-England, we give the following list of bridges, built within a few years, over Connecticut river, viz.

New Hampshire	Vermont
Between the towns of	
Northumberland and	Guildhall 1
Lancaster	Guildhall 1
Haverhill	Newbury 3
Orford	Fairlee 1
Hanover	Norwich 1
Lebanon	Hartford 1
Cornish	Windsor 1
Charlestown	Springfield 1
Walpole	Rockingham 1
Chesterfield	Brattleboro' 1

In Massachusetts—between
Greenfield and Montague 1
Springfield W. Springfield 1

A bridge between Hatfield and Hadley will, we are informed, be finished during the present season, as much the heaviest part of the work is already accomplished.—When this shall be completed, we may reckon 15 useful edifices, many of which combine strength and beauty.

—
A singular circumstance was discovered on Friday evening last, in Mr. John Bowman's barn, Cumberland county, Pennsylvania. About 8 o'clock of that evening, a young man belonging to the family went, in order to put up a horse in the stable; above, in the foddering gang, he observed something that appeared to him like a man, with fiery eyes, which he thought was a spirit; but fixing a resolution upon himself, with a view to see what it really was, he found, upon approaching the place, that it was absolutely fire, issuing through a small aperture in the loft of the stable, which was afterwards found to be made by the fire (as the loft was otherwise closely laid with boards). Upon further examination, a large quantity of hay, near the centre of the

mow, was found to be in a highly inflammable state, resembling that of a coal pit on fire, which, as soon as exposed to the external air, instantly burst into a flame; but, by the vigilance and good management of Mr. Bowman's family, and a few neighbours, the flame was kept under, by throwing water on the hay, and confining it from air, as much as possible, until morning; by which time they had collected more assistance. They then undertook to remove the inflammable hay, which was effected by hauling it out on waggons into the adjoining fields; this, however, was done with much difficulty, as it burned with great rapidity, when exposed to the air, in spite of every precaution they were able to take. They were even obliged to overset the waggons once or twice, to prevent them from being burned.

About the middle of June, Mr. Bowman had put into the mow of his barn about 80 tons of hay, principally clover. The weather not being very favourable for hay-making when endeavouring to cure it, they ventured to put it in pretty green, on the supposition of salt doing what remained to be done by the sun. To effect this, he put about half a bushel of salt to every load; but all did not do: a strong fermentation took place, which was certainly the cause of its taking fire.

It is an incontrovertible proof, that many barns, supposed to be set on fire by mischievous persons, take fire from the very same cause, and in the same manner Mr. Bowman's would have done, had they not been fortunate in discovering the fire in the time they did. Farmers should therefore be very careful in curing their grain and hay, before packed into their barns, as it may otherwise be attended with dangerous consequences. It appears to many to be absolutely impossible for hay or grain to heat to that degree as to take fire. But the above circumstance puts every doubt on that subject completely at defiance.

The Copleyan medal has been adjudged by the Royal Philosophical Society of London to T. A. Knight, Esq., for his numerous discoveries in vegetable physiology. Sir Joseph Banks, upon presenting Mr. Knight with the reward of his labours and high merit, pronounced a most able discourse on the pursuits of this gentleman. He noticed his researches and observations on the albuminous juices of plants, in its *ascent* elaborating the buds and leaves, and in its *descent* forming wood; and of his discovery of the natural decay of apple-trees, and of the grafts, which decline and become unproductive at the same time with the parent stock. The learned president referred next to the experiments, which went to prove that all vegetables radiate by gravitation only, and not by any instinctive energy; that new and superior species of apples may be produced from seed; and that impregnating the pollen was found to be an advantageous substitute for grafting. He then alluded to the new and very valuable species of pears produced by Mr. Knight, and to a new species of vines, which bear grapes not only superior in flavour to others hitherto known, but which are capable of arriving at perfection, even in the most adverse seasons, in our climate. For these, and other discoveries, ably enumerated by the learned president, the Copleyan medal was adjudged to Mr. Knight, whose successful labours in this branch of natural history have probably surpassed those of any other philosopher in developing the economy of vegetation, and the laws of vegetable life.

Dr. Carradori, in opposition to the experiments and conclusions of Messrs. Humboldt and Gay Lussac, affirms that ebullition is not sufficient to free water from all the oxygen that it contains; and that nothing but congelation, and the res-

piration of fishes, can entirely clear water of its oxygen. These, he says, are the only means that complete the separation from water of all the oxygen it contains interposed between its globules. Fishes he conceives to be the endimeters of water; and one of these, shut up in a body of water, is capable of separating, by means of its respiration, in several hours, all the oxygen from the water, and to exhaust it entirely from this principle. By several ingenious, but cruel, experiments on fish, this philosopher proves that melted snow, as well as water that has been congealed, is deprived of all its oxygen.

Leroi, who has made many successful experiments in agriculture, advises persons by no means to procure grain for sowing from a soil north of their own land, but from a country south of it; because he says it is a general rule, that the product of seed improves in going from south to north, and that it decreases in virtue in going from north to south. He recommends boiled carrots, as an excellent and cheap food for the fattening of pigs; and he adds, that by steeping raw carrots in water to deprive them of their acrid principle, then by boiling them, and causing them to ferment, an ardent spirit may be drawn from them, more wholesome than brandy distilled from rye.

M. L. Abbe Melograni has invented a new blow-pipe: it consists of two hollow glass globes, of a size proportioned to the effects required, which are united by two metallic tubes placed one against the other; each of these pipes has a valve attached at each of its extremities: a third pipe placed horizontally, and at right angles with the two first, is hermetically fixed to the pipes which unite the two globes. This horizontal pipe, besides serving to direct the air upon the flame of the lamp, likewise

forms a support and axis on which the globes turn. When the lower globe, which is half filled with water, has, in changing its position, become uppermost, the water will run out into the other, and will form, by the pressure, a current of air in the pipe, which, being stopped by the valve at the extremity of the same pipe, will be forced to pass through the horizontal pipe; the mouth of which being directed towards the flame, will produce the effect desired: when the water has descended into the lower ball, the position must be changed, and the action of the machine will recommence.

Theodore Pierre Bertin has invented a new syphon, capable of raising water thirty feet high without human help. This instrument is, we are told, applicable to different purposes: as a syphon, it may be used to raise water above its source, in any situation; as a pump, it may serve as a pneumatic chemical apparatus, by the help of which may be made acidulated waters. The effects of this pump are in proportion to the superior length of the descending limb over that of the ascending one: it is therefore convenient for conveying perfumed air, such as that of an orangerie, for example, into rooms: it may also be rendered useful for mild suction, and might be employed in surgical operations where the sucking-pump is employed.

Two species of bears at present unknown have been found by M. Cuvier, buried with tygers, hyenas, and other carnivorous animals, in a great number of caverns, in the mountains of Hungary and Germany.

M. Seguin, from the remarkable quantity of albumen found in vegetable juices which ferment without yeast, and afford a vinous

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liquor, has been led to enquire whether the albumen might not be of essential consequence to this intestine motion. Having deprived these juices of albumen, they became incapable of fermenting; and then having supplied this principle, such as white of egg to saccharine matter, the fermentation took place, and a matter similar to yeast was deposited, which appeared to be only the albumen, which was so altered as to be nearly insoluble, without having lost its fermentescible action. Hence he concludes, that albumen, whether animal or vegetable, is the true ferment.

M. Oliver has lately presented to the National Institute an account of the topography of Persia; in which he has described the chains of mountains, the courses of streams, and the productions peculiar to climate. The great and prevailing drought is the cause why not more than a twentieth part of that vast empire is cultivated. Entire provinces have not a single tree which is not planted and watered by the hands of man. This evil is constantly increasing, by the destruction of these canals by which the water from the mountains was formerly conducted to the lands.

Freyliino has extracted a large quantity of saccharine matter from the black mulberry tree, which may be obtained in a state of syrup or concrete sugar. The syrup may be had by extracting the juice, clarifying it with the whites of eggs, and afterwards evaporating it to a proper consistence.

M. Gogo has obtained from the common hazel-nut a sweet and agreeable oil.

Count Rumford, who is now at Paris, has ascertained that light loses little of its intensity by passing

through ground glass; he recommends, therefore, the perference of ground glasses for Argand's lamp, as a means of preventing the glare, so offensive to the eye.

Dr. Gautieri, physician at Angogna, in the Milanese, has published a treatise on the animal gelatine as a cure for intermittents. The National Institute have delegated a committee to inquire into the effects of this new remedy, and they found that the common glue of the joiners cured intermittents. A great many Italian physicians have tried this remedy, and found it safe and effectual. They tried it in the *febris tertiana duplicata*, some also in the quartan, which had not yielded to bark, &c., likewise in the quotidian remittents. Several patients were restored even by the simple jelly of beef. They observed that the sthenical intermittents cured by the glue went over into a *febris continua*, and even in asthenical ones; but this continuity lasted at most only one or two days. The glue is to be given a short time before the paroxysm. Its principal effect consists in taking away the atony of the stomach and the skin. When that is done, it is advisable to give some doses at several other hours of the day. It ought not to be diluted too much with water. When the solution, made from eleven or twelve drachms of glue in two ounces of water, coagulates and thickens again, it may easily be made potable, by putting the glass on hot ashes*. Others gave the doses every quarter, or every half hour, with equally good effect. The patient should not drink much after having taken the medicine, and especially no acid beverage. Two or three hours after he may drink or eat. The glue operates at the

* Gluten, prepared in a Papinian digester, from fresh bones, beef, &c., would produce the same effect, be equally cheap, and without the nauseous taste of the joiner's glue.

same time as a sudorific. The patient ought to remain two days in bed after the fever has ceased, and to avoid the air (especially if it be cold and moist) for four or five days. At Berlin these cures have been reiterated in the *Charité*, and found of indubitable effect.

De Sacco, at Milan, has made experiments, which prove that the lymph of the malanders, or rather the grease of horses (Italian, *giardoni*, German, *mauke*, French, *eaux aux jambes*), has the same effect, when inoculated, as the vaccine virus. These experiments have been repeated several times at Berlin, by Dr. and counsellor Bremer, who got re-produced lymph from Vienna. He transplanted the lymph by four generations, and it remained effective. All necessary means have been employed to ascertain that true cow-pock was produced. Every child inoculated with this matter was re-inoculated with the natural small-pox, but did not take it.

The secret of the invisible girl has lately been supposed to have been discovered, from which it should seem, that the whole deception consists in a very trifling addition to the mechanism of the *speaking bust*; which consists of a tube from the mouth of the bust, leading to a confederate in an adjoining room, and another tube to the same place, ending in the ear of the figure. By the last of these, a sound whispered to the ear of the bust is immediately carried to the confederate, who instantly returns an answer by the other tube ending in the mouth of the figure, who seems to utter it: and the invisible girl only differs in this circumstance, that an artificial echo is produced by means of certain trumpets; and thus the sound does not proceed in its original direction, but is completely reversed.

VOL. VIII. NO. XLVIII.

The London Medical Society propose to confer the Fothergillian gold medal on the authors of the best essays on the following subjects:

Question for the year 1807.—

The best account of the epidemic fevers which have prevailed at several times in North America, Spain, and Gibraltar, since the year 1793, and whether they are the same or different diseases.

For the year 1808.—What are the best methods of preventing and of curing epidemic dysentery?

For the year 1809.—What are the criteria by which epidemic disorders that are not infectious may be distinguished from those that are?

For the year 1810.—What are the qualities in the atmosphere most to be desired under the various circumstances of pulmonary consumption?

It has been lately recommended that, excepting the lancet employed in vaccination, all the instruments of surgery ought to be dipped into oil at the moment when they are going to be used; by which method the pain of the subject operated upon will always be diminished. It is recommended to make all instruments of a blood-heat a little before the operation.

Mr. Hermbstadt, of Berlin, gives the following as a cheap method of obtaining the sugar of the beet-root: Let the beet-roots be pounded in a mortar, and then subjected to the press; the juice is next to be clarified with lime, like that of the sugar-cane, and then by evaporation bring it to the consistence of syrup. From 100 lbs. of raw sugar thus obtained, 80 lbs. may be had, by the first refining, of well-crystalized sugar, inferior neither in quality nor whiteness to that of the West-Indies. Two days are sufficient to complete the operation.

An article in the foreign papers, dated St. Petersburg, May 4, says: "His imperial majesty has been pleased to grant a very remarkable charter to the colony of Scotsmen who have been settled for the last four years in the mountain of Caucasus. The right and privileges accorded to the Scotsmen, who form a detached settlement in a district so thinly peopled, and bordering on the territories of so many uncivilized tribes of mahometans and heathens, are intended to increase their activity in extending trade and manufactures, and to place them, in respect to their immunities, on the same footing with the Evangelical Society of Sarepta.

"They are to have the requisite additional allotments of land as near as possible to the village which they have already founded. Of these his majesty secures to them the perpetual possession, promising that no part of the tract allotted to their community shall ever pass, by sale, mortgage, or bill of pre-emption, or any other pretence, into the occupation of strangers. They are exempted from all imposts or burthens for thirty years; at the end of which period they are, instead of a poll tax, to pay their proportion of the land tax, but to remain exempt from all other imposts, from the civil and military service of the state, and from the billeting of soldiers in any of their villages.

"The free exercise of their religion is confirmed to them, and the internal affairs and police of the settlement shall for ever be administered by a magistrate chosen from among themselves. His passports will be a sufficient authority for them to travel and traffic in every part of the empire, but not for leaving the country.

"The chief magistrate is not, without special permission, to admit to the privileges of a colonist any Russian subject, but is at liberty to receive as settlers Kabardans, Circassians, and every other description of mahometans and heathens, being

freemen, and taking the oath of allegiance to his majesty. They may also become converts to the religion of the colony. The colonists may also buy and keep Kabardan, Circassian, and other mahometan and heathen slaves.

"They may freely exercise every sort of trade, art, or manufacture, and within their own limits distill and vend their spiritous liquors. The colony is placed under the special protection of the civil government of Caucaso."

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The oriental library of the late Tippoo Sultan, which, on the capture of Seringapatam, was preserved entire, and consists of 2000 volumes of Arabic, Persian, and Hindustane manuscripts, was shortly after that event conveyed to Calcutta, and deposited in the college of Fort William, where it much facilitated the labours and pursuits of the professors and students of those languages. This library was, in the year 1805, minutely examined, by the assistant Persian professor, captain Charles Stewart, and a descriptive catalogue, explaining the subject of each volume, memoirs of the author, &c., formed of its contents. Since that gentleman's arrival in England, and appointment to the East India Company's college at Hartford, he has revised the work, and added an appendix, containing specimens of the Persian language (accompanied by translations), from the principal authors quoted in the catalogue, rendering it not only a useful book to the oriental student, but desirable by every person wishing for information on such subjects, or curious of knowing the nature and extent of mahometan literature, which, it must be remembered, had arrived at a great degree of splendour, when Europe was overcast with ignorance and barbarism. For the convenience of foreigners, to whom the English letters may not give the exact pronunciation of an oriental word, the titles of the books will be also inscribed in the Arabic character.

POETRY.

For the Literary Magazine.

FRIENDSHIP.

THOUGH, chilling as the wintry
wind,
A weight of woes depress the mind,
To depths below the tomb,
Soft Friendship's voice, pure from the
soul,
Would warm beneath the northern
pole,
And dissipate the gloom.

The soul-reviving balm it bears
Would chase a hydra troop of cares
From the perturbed heart ;
The happy few who prove its pow'r
Well know it cheers the gloomiest
hour
Affliction can impart.

Unlike to Love's despotic reign,
Who binds with barb'rous, servile
chain,
The instant when he smiles ;
Whose joys would ne'er repay for
sighs,
For tear-bedewed, bedimmed eyes
Of those who've prov'd his wiles.

'Tis not to age or sex confin'd,
Nor dwells it in the vicious mind,
For vice can never know
The bliss supreme which doth attend
When virtuous hearts united blend,
Weeping each other's woe.

Yet Julius says, 'twould not be found,
Though we should search the earth
around ;
He holds deception's most.
But why need Julius now be told
Friendship's engrav'd on every fold
Of his Maria's heart.

Though bless'd in him her heart re-
veres,
Her couch is oft suffus'd with tears,
For sorrows not her own.
While he lies wrapt in balmy sleep,
She wakes at midnight, wakes to
weep,
And breathe the heavy groan.

The paltry world, the common guide,
She nobly dares to spurn aside,
While, true to Friendship's call,
She passes the gay, splendid dome,
Pursues pale Mis'ry to its home,
To share its cup of gall ;

Forgets the bliss she left behind,
Anxious to raise the drooping mind,
And bind the broken heart ;
And pledges with a tear the cup,
Eager to drink the mixture up,
Nor leave the wretch a part.

Here Friendship makes a sacred claim:
'Tis not a less ennobled name,
Say Julius what he may ;
Nought else would stand the test of
years,
Even Pity sheds but transient tears,
Which dries as dew away.

Then, Julius, come, that mist dispel,
Though Friendship, some have said,
can't dwell
But in equality,
I'll prove, though you should truth
resist,
Without the pale it can exist,
By the reality.

And well as Julius knows the heart,
He must mistake his own in part,
For Friendship triumphs there ;
The mould that form'd Maria's mind,
Form'd his as gentle, good, and kind,
And Friendship claims the pair.

Yet, Julius, man's but simple man,
Say in his praise what mortal can ;
By one false friend deceiv'd,
You droop, and Friendship's sweets
resign,
While I bow still before its shrine,
Though oh ! how oft bereav'd !

SABINA.

For the Literary Magazine.

SONG.

THE tears I shed must ever fall.
I mourn not for an absent swain ;

For thoughts may past delights recal,
 And parted lovers meet again.
 I weep not for the silent dead,
 Their toils are past, their sorrows
 o'er;
 And those they lov'd their steps shall
 tread,
 And death shall join to part no
 more.

Tho' boundless oceans roll'd between,
 If certain that his heart is near,
 A conscious transport glads each
 scene;
 Soft is the sigh, and sweet the tear.
 Even when, by death's cold hand re-
 moved,
 We mourn the tenant of the tomb,
 To think that e'en in death he loved,
 Can gild the horrors of the gloom.

But bitter, bitter are the tears
 Of her who slighted love bewails,
 No hope her dreary prospect cheers,
 No pleasing melancholy hails.
 Here are the pangs of wounded
 pride,
 Of blasted hope, of wither'd joy;
 The flattering veil is rent aside,
 The flame of love burns to destroy.

In vain does memory renew
 The hours once ting'd in trans-
 port's dye;
 The sad reverse soon starts to view,
 And turns the past to agony;
 Even time itself despairs to cure
 Those pangs to ev'ry feeling due;
 Ungenerous youth! thy boast how
 poor,
 To win a heart, and break it too.

No cold approach, no altered mien,
 Just what would make suspicion
 start,
 No pause the dire extremes between;
 He made me blest, and broke my
 heart.
 From hope, the wretched's anchor
 torn,
 Neglected, and neglecting all,
 Friendless, forsaken, and forlorn,
 The tears I shed must ever fall!

ELIZA.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE SCOLD.

A Song.

SOME women take delight in dress,
 And some in cards take pleasure;
 Whilst others place their happiness
 In heaping hoards of treasure;
 In private some delight to kiss,
 Their hidden charms unfolding;
 But all mistake the sovereign bliss,
 There's no such joy as scolding.

The instant that I ope my eyes,
 Adieu all day to silence;
 Before my neighbours they can rise,
 They hear my tongue a mile hence:
 When at the board I take my seat,
 'Tis one continu'd riot;
 I eat and scold, and scold and eat,
 My clack is ne'er at quiet.

Too fat, too lean, too hot, too cold,
 I ever am complaining;
 Too raw, too roast, too young, too old,
 Each guest at table paining;
 Let it be fowl, or flesh, or fish,
 Tho' of my own providing,
 I still find fault with every dish,
 Still every servant chiding.

But when to bed I go at night,
 I surely fall a weeping;
 For then I lose my great delight,
 How can I scold when sleeping?
 But this my pain doth mitigate,
 And soon disperses sorrow;
 Altho' to-night it be too late,
 I'll pay it off to-morrow.

For the Literary Magazine.

WRITTEN EXTEMPORE,

*On the author's being cured of a fit of
 the head-ache by dancing with Miss*

QUACK doctors too oft their patients
 deceive,
 By boasted pretensions to skill;
 And whilst they the present disorder
 relieve,
 Fix some more incurable ill.

Thus Celia by dancing my head-ach
reliev'd,
And I vainly applauded her art ;
Till at last the fair mountebank's cheat
I perceiv'd,
For the pain is now fix'd in my
heart.

G.

For the Literary Magazine.

THE DYING DAUGHTER TO HER
MOTHER.

By Mrs. Opie.

MOTHER ! when these unsteady
lines
Thy long averted eye shall see,
This hand that writes, this heart that
pines,
Will cold, quite cold, and tran-
quil be.

That guilty child, so long disowned,
Can then, blest thought ! no more
offend ;
And, shouldst thou deem my crimes
atoned,
O, deign my orphan to befriend :

That orphan, who, with trembling
hand,
To thee will give my dying prayer ;
Canst thou my dying prayer withstand,
And from my child withhold thy
care ?

O, raise the veil, which hides her
cheek,
Nor start her mother's face to see ;
But let her look thy love bespeak,
For once that face was dear to thee.

Gaze on, and thou'lt perchance forget
The long, the mournful lapse of
years,
Thy couch with tears of anguish wet,
And e'en the guilt which caused
those tears.

And in my pure and artless child,
Thou'lt think her mother meets
thy view ;
Such as she was when life first
smiled,
And guilt by name alone she knew.

Ah ! then I see thee o'er her charms
A look of fond affection cast ;
I see thee clasp her in thine arms,
And in the present lose the past.

But soon the dear illusion flies ;
The sad reality returns :
My crimes again to memory rise,
And, ah ! in vain my orphan
mourns :

Till suddenly some keen remorse,
Some deep regret her claims shall
aid ;
For wrath that held too long its
course ;
For words of peace too long de-
layed.

For pardon (most, alas ! denied,
When pardon might have snatched
from shame)
And kindness, hadst thou kindness
tried,
Had checked my guilt, and saved
my fame.

And then thou'lt wish, as I do now,
Thy hand my humble bed had
smoothed,
Wiped the chill moisture off my brow,
And all the wants of sickness
soothed.

For, oh ! the means to sooth my pain
My poverty has still denied ;
And thou wilt wish, ah ! wish in vain,
Thy riches had those means sup-
plied.

Thou'lt wish, with keen repentance
wring,
I'd closed my eyes upon thy breast,
Expiring, while thy faltering tongue
Pardon in kindest tones expressed.

O sounds which I must never hear !
Through years of woe my fond de-
sire !

O mother, spite of all most dear,
Must I, unblest by thee, expire ?

Thy love alone I call to mind,
And all thy past disdain forget ;
Each keen reproach, each frown un-
kind,
That crushed my hopes when last
we met ;

But when I saw that angry brow,
Both health and youth were still
my own :

O mother ! couldst thou see me now,
Thou wouldst not have the heart to
frown.

But see ! my orphan's cheek displays
Both youth and health's carnation
dyes,
Such as on mine, in happier days,
So fondly charmed the partial eyes.

Grief o'er her bloom a veil now
draws,
Grief her loved parent's pang to
see ;
And when thou think'st upon the
cause,
That paleness will have charms for
thee.

But wilt thou thus indulgent be ?
O ! am I not by hope beguiled ?
The long, long anger shown to me,
Say, will it not pursue my child ?

And must she suffer for my crime ?
Ah ! no ; forbid it, gracious Heaven !
And grant, oh ! grant, in thy good
time,
That she be loved, and I forgiven !

For the Literary Magazine.

TO SIMPLICITY.

SWEET nymph ! of every placid
mien,
Who shun'st the lures of sordid
pride,
Who lov'st the valley's humble scene,
Come, o'er my votive muse preside ;
For nor Ambition's gilded toys,
Nor Vice's soft enticing glance,
Nor Folly's visionary joys,
One moment can my breast en-
trance.

But thou in rustic garb canst please,
While pomp and power soon will
cloy ;
Canst boast more bliss, and lasting
ease,
Than Fortune's minions e'er enjoy.
Yes ! happier I thy smiles to share,
From ev'ry pallid sorrow free,

More blest to taste thy simple fare,
O ! meek-ey'd maid ! Simplicity.

Lead me, then, to thy happy vale,
Where no corroding cares molest,
Where mild Content trips o'er the
dale,

With dimpled cheeks, and modest
vest.

There be thy straw-roof'd cottage
mine,

Thy babbling rill, and sylvan glade ;
Thy moss-deck'd seat, whose nodding
pine

Throws o'er the brow a darksome
shade.

There, far retir'd from Fashion's ken,
How happy will we pass our life !
Well will we mark the care of men,
And smile at their discordant strife.
With bosom light and airy tread,
Around each genial joy shall come,
Whilst Hope shall e'er our footsteps
lead,
And Health will gild our happy
home.

As thought directs, our path we'll
chuse,

What time the Morning spreads
her wing ;

To cull the flow'r of simple hues,
Or scent the sweets the zephyrs
bring.

Or we will skirt the silver stream,
The heathy hill or valley o'er ;
Or pleasing trace Aurora's beam
Its brightness o'er the landscape
pour.

Or if beneath some oak reclin'd,
The lark's aerial thrilling note
Shall sooth to peace the musing mind,
And o'er the raptured senses float.
Thus soft entranc'd gay forms will
rise,
And Fancy with her pow'rs attend ;
To wake anew life's smiling joys,
" Each pleasure past, each social
friend."

When Cynthia lightens all the vale,
And Nature courts a calm repose ;
When distant sounds swell in the
gale,

And all the pencil'd flow'rets close ;
Then will we join the festive round,
And trip the sprightly dance along ;
Or to the pipe's melodious sound,
Awake the love-inspiring song.

And e'en when darken'd shadows
 spread,
 And o'er the lawn loud tempests
 howl;
 Still, still within thy clay-built shed,
 Each hour on Pleasure's wings
 shall roll;
 For there secure, no harm I'll fear,
 Whilst on thy couch of slumber
 laid,
 But soft enjoy each vision dear,
 That hovers lightly round my head.

'Tis thus thou shalt, enchanting maid!
 Where'er I stray, morn, noon, or
 night,
 Each pleasure-strewed path pervade,
 And e'er create some new delight.
 For thou wilt ev'ry joy increase,
 And glad each hour that's spent
 with thee;
 Spread o'er each scene thy smiles of
 peace,
 O meek-ey'd maid! Simplicity.

J. B.

MARRIAGES AND DEATHS.

MARRIED,

At PHILADELPHIA, on Tuesday evening, September 1, by the Rev. Dr. Staughton, Mr. Maylin, of the mission church at Serampore, Bengal, to Mrs. M'Cutchen of Philadelphia.

On Saturday evening, September 5, by the Rev. Dr. Staughton, captain Joseph R. Connell, to Miss Ann Beasley, daughter of Mr. Stephen Beasley, all of Philadelphia.

On Sunday evening, September 6, by the Rev. Joseph Turner, Mr. James Fossett, to Miss Elizabeth Keighler, both of Philadelphia.

On Wednesday evening, September 9, by the Rev. Dr. Green, Ebenezer Rockwood, Esq., to Miss Elizabeth B. Hazard, daughter of Ebenezer Hazard, Esq., of Philadelphia.

On Thursday evening, September 10, by the Rev. Dr. Staughton, Mr. John Sterrett, of Wilmington, Delaware, to Miss Margaret Bayard, of the Northern Liberties.

On Wednesday evening, September 16, by the Rev. bishop White, Mr. John Goddard, of Baltimore, to Miss Mary Beck, daughter of Paul Beck, Esq., of Philadelphia.

On Friday evening, September 18, by the Rev. Dr. Rogers, Mr. John Roberts Worrell, to Miss Sidney Flounders, both of Delaware county, Pennsylvania.

On Thursday evening, September 17, by the Rev. Philip F. Mayer, Mr. George Likes, to Miss Mary Haw, both of the Northern Liberties.

Same evening, by the same, Mr. John Rigler, to Miss Margaret Hornketh, both of Philadelphia.

On Sunday evening, September 20, by the same, Mr. Richard Welsh, to Mrs. Louisa Ellison, both of Philadelphia.

Same evening, by the Rev. Dr. Rogers, Mr. Thomas Collings, to Mrs. Sarah Dover, daughter of John Dover, Esq., all of the Northern Liberties.

On Tuesday evening, September 22, by the Rev. Dr. Meyer, captain William Henry, to Mrs. Elizabeth Thomas, daughter of Mr. Andrew Thillers, all of Philadelphia.

At Germantown, at Friend's Meeting, on Friday morning, September 11, Mr. Benjamin Buck, farmer, of Bristol township, to Mrs. Rebecca Walters, of Philadelphia.

At Washington City, on Tuesday evening, by the Rev. Mr. Laurie, Mr. Toppan Webster, to Miss Martha Osborne, both of that City.

At the farm of Mr. Francis Bailey, at Octoraro, near Lancaster, by the Rev. Mr. Sample, of Strasburg, Mr. Frederick Eckstein, of Philadelphia, to Miss Jane Bailey, daughter of Mr. Francis Bailey, printer.

DIED,

At PHILADELPHIA, on the 30th of August, Magnus Miller, Esq., for many years a respectable merchant in that city, aged eighty-six.

On Thursday, September 3, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, captain George Curwen.

Same day, in the Pennsylvania hospital, John Butler, of North Carolina, near to Ransom's bridge; he came from thence, and was admitted for a large wen, the 11th of April last; when extracted from his cheek and neck, on the 22d of the same month, it weighed five and a half pounds. Of this wen he was perfectly cured, and was retained in the house about five weeks, to give him an opportunity of going home, but was unfortunately arrested by the influenza, accompanied with a fever, of which he died, after a week's illness: his remains were deposited next day, by his own request, in the presbyterian graveyard.

On Thursday September 3, in the thirty-fifth year of her age, Mrs. Hannah Marsh, wife of Mr. Joseph Marsh, jun., of Southwark, and daughter of Adam Hubley, Esq., deceased, formerly of that city.

On Friday evening, September 4, Mrs. Mary Snider, consort of Mr. John Snider, merchant, Philadelphia.

Same day, Mr. Samuel Emlen (son of the late George Emlen, deceased), in the fifty-first year of his age.

On Friday morning, September 4, in the eighty-seventh year of her age, Ann Hallowell, of that city, for many years a respectable elder of the Society of Friends.

On Saturday, September 5, in her eighty-fifth year, much beloved and respected by her relatives and friends, Mrs. Craig, widow of the late Mr. James Craig, of that city.

On Monday, September 7, after a short illness, in the fifty-second year of her age, Mrs. Rebecca Pancake, wife of colonel Philip Pancake, of that city.

Same day, much regretted, Mr. William Stewart, of the house of Hassinger and Stewart, of that city.

On Sunday evening, September 13, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, Mr. James Hamel, long a respectable inhabitant of that city.

On Monday morning, September 14, Mrs. Elizabeth Holscamp, late wife of Mr. Garret Holscamp, in the seventy-third year of her age.

On Wednesday morning, September 23, Salome Morgan, relict of Benjamin Morgan, in her seventy-third year.

On Saturday, September 26, in the fifty-second year of her age, Mrs. Jane Tunis, wife of Richard Tunis, Esq.

On Thursday morning, October 1, general Peter Muhlenberg, collector of the port of Philadelphia.

At CHARLESTON (S. C.), September 2d, Mr. Augustus D. Jones, a native of Virginia, and a resident of that city for upwards of three years; aged twenty-six years.

Same day, in the twenty-eighth year of his age, Mr. Alexander Gibson, a native of Massachusetts.

On the 3d September, in the 35th year of her age, Miss Mary Isabella O'Brien, eldest daughter of B. O'Brien, Esq., merchant of Dublin.

Same day, after a few days' illness, in the 29th year of his age, and much regretted by all his acquaintances, Mr. John Tillinghast, of the firm of Pearce and Tillinghast, merchants of that city. Mr. T. was a native of Rhode Island, and was a lieutenant in the newly raised company of riflemen.

Same day, in the twenty-fourth year of her age, Mr. James Neilson, merchant of that city.

Same day, Mr. James Drew, a native of Scotland.

Same day, Mrs. Mary-Ann Lamb, aged 30 years, wife of capt. James Lamb. She was a native of Edinburgh, and has left a husband and five children to lament her early loss.

A jury of inquest was held on the 4th of September, on the body of

Ross Brown, a mariner, found dead in Union-Street. The jury brought in a verdict that "he came to his death by the visitation of God, *occasioned by the extreme heat of the weather.*"

September 5, after a long and painful illness, Mr. Andrew Holmes, merchant, of that city.

A jury of inquest was held on the 7th September, on the body of William Paul, a blacksmith, a native of Scotland, found dead in his bed, in Trott-street. The jury brought in a verdict, that "the deceased came to his death by the visitation of God, *occasioned by the extreme heat of the weather.*"

September 7, Mr. William Adams, aged nine years, brother of Mr. J. S. Adams, merchant, of that city.

Same day, after a short illness, Patrick M'Dowal, for many years a respectable merchant in that city.

September 4, Mr. James Bates, a native of England, aged eighteen years, son of Mr. William Bates, comedian.

Same day, Mrs. Bridget Turnbull, aged forty-five years, a native of Ireland.

September 5, Mrs. Mary Petrie, aged sixty-eight years.

Same day, Miss Mary White Barksdale.

Same day, Mr. James Park, a native of Ireland, in the twenty-second year of his age.

On Sullivan's Island, September 7, Mr. William Rose, aged thirty-eight years, a native of Sweden.

On Sullivan's Island, same day, Mr. John Dedrich Peper, a native of Hamburg, aged twenty-five years.

Same day, a jury of inquest was held on the body of Dr. Daniel Broadman, late of New York, who died in a fit, at Mr. Jonathan Hope's hotel, on the bay; it was supposed he had laboured under mental derangement. The jury brought in a verdict, that he came to his death by the visitation of God.

Same day, in that city, Mr. Samuel H. Porter, printer, in the twenty-third

year of his age, son of the Rev. Mr. Porter, of Rye, in New Hampshire.

September 8, Mr. Jonathan W. Coy, a native of Rhode Island, aged twenty-three years.

Same day, on Sullivan's Island, Mr. Samuel Chapman, merchant, aged twenty-seven years.

September 8, Mr. John Urquhart, nephew of Mr. Charles Banks, in the 24th year of his age.

September 11, Agatha M'Dowall, aged thirty-six years; relict of Mr. Patrick M'Dowall, who died on Monday last, leaving six orphans to bewail their irreparable loss; the eldest of whom is dangerously ill.

September 4, Mr. Thomas Noble, a native of England.

September 12, in the twelfth year of her age, Miss Sarah Ann M'Dowall, eldest daughter of the late Mr. and Mrs. M'Dowall, who died a few days before.

Same day, Mrs. Ann Teasdale, relict of the late Isaac Teasdale, Esq., deceased.

Same day, in the 29th year of his age, Mr. Thomas Kennard, printer, a native of Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

Same day, a jury of inquest was held on the body of John Pack, who was found dead in his bed: the jury brought in their verdict that he came to his death by the visitation of God.

On Sullivan's Island, on September 10, Mr. Archibald Johnson, merchant, a native of Scotland.

September 13, at his plantation, in that state, Mr. Philip Lamar, a very respectable citizen; and on the same day, and of the same disorder (a violent fever), his consort, Mrs. Ruth Lamar.

September 10, captain Christopher Whipple, in the thirty-eighth year of his age, a native of Rhode Island.

On his passage from Charleston to Liverpool, on board the ship George Augustus, captain Jackson, Mr. Thomas Giles, aged twenty-eight years, late of that city,

deservedly esteemed and regretted by all his friends and acquaintances.

September 12, after a short but severe illness, Mr. Isaac Boughonneau, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

September 13, after a short and painful illness, Miss Mary Haynes, aged nineteen years and six months; a native of Albany, state of New York.

September 14, in the twenty-ninth year of his age, after a short illness of four days, Mr. I. Charles Hentz, a native of Bremen.

September 15, Mr. John Norment, formerly a resident near Newbern, North Carolina.

September 23, Mr. Daniel Ewing, merchant, a native of Scotland.

At Savannah, September 10, Mr. John Dougherty, printer, and one of the proprietors of the Federal Republican Advocate, printed in that city. He was a native of Ireland, and formerly an inhabitant of Charleston.

At Norfolk, September 11, Thomas Newton, senior, Esq., collector of that port.

At BALTIMORE, on the 8th September, after a long and painful illness, William Waterhouse, a member of the Society of Friends.

On Thursday, September 17, Mr. George Malthy, a respected merchant of that city. This gentleman lost his life by the unexpected discharge of a pistol, in the hand of a friend. The ball entered his head, and he immediately expired.

On Saturday night last, at his lodgings in the Indian Queen hotel, John Price, Esq., of the house of Messrs. T. Junno and J. Price, of Charleston, South Carolina, most deservedly lamented.

September 4, near Newton, Chester county, Pennsylvania, Mr. Peter Barker, sen., in the eighty-eighth year of his age, formerly of Philadelphia.

August 31, at his seat near Bedford, Pennsylvania, after a painful indisposition, arising from an in-

flammation of the liver, which had confined him for about six months, George Woods, Esq., in the forty-third year of his age.

Lately, in Bart township, Lancaster county, Pennsylvania, Mrs. Mary Downing, relict of the late Mr. William Downing, in the ninety-eighth year of her age.

At Reading, Berks county, Pennsylvania, September 14th, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, much and deservedly regretted, William Morris, Esq. a respectable inhabitant of that borough.

September 10th, Elizabeth Clement, wife of Thomas Clement, Esq. of Salem, New Jersey.

At Burlington, New Jersey, Mr. William Stiles, son of William Stiles, marble cutter, deceased.

September 28, Mr. Benjamin Ordycke, in the eighty-fifth year of his age; long a respectable inhabitant of Bethlehem township, New Jersey.

September 14, at Bloomingdale, in the state of New York, in the thirty-second year of her age, after a most afflicting illness of five months, Mrs. Ann Livingston, wife of the honourable Brockholst Livingston Esq.

In Newbury, Massachusetts, on Saturday morning, September 12, Mrs. Lydia Smith, in the 91st year of her age.

In Worcester, Mrs. Keziah, relict of the late Dr. Thomas Nichols, aged ninety-three; leaving 152 surviving lineal descendants.

September 28, at West Fairlee, Vermont, Mr. Erastus Bassett (late principal of the Young Ladies' Academy of Philadelphia), aged thirty-three years.

In Bangor, Maine, Mr. Samuel Soper, aged twenty-eight; his death was occasioned by the fall of a bank of clay, under which he was digging clay to make bricks.

In Northampton, master Martin Ely, aged sixteen, by the falling of one of the weights of the town clock, while he was in the act of winding it up, which occasioned a great contusion of the skull.

WEEKLY REGISTER OF MORTALITY IN THE CITIES OF PHILADELPHIA, NEW YORK, AND BALTIMORE.

*Health-office, Sept. 5, 1807.**Interments, in the city and liberties of Philadelphia, in the week ending the 5th of September.*

<i>Diseases.</i>	<i>Ad.</i>	<i>Childr.</i>
Apoplexy,	1	0
Asthma,	1	0
Cholera morbus,	0	7
Consumption of the lungs,	2	0
Convulsions,	0	4
Decay,	4	0
Diarrhœa,	1	6
Dropsy,	1	0
Dropsy in the chest,	1	0
Dropsy in the brain,	0	1
Drowned,	0	1
Dysentery,	0	4
Fever remittent or bilious,	1	0
Hooping cough,	0	1
Hives,	0	3
Hernia,	1	0
Inflammation of the lungs,	3	1
bowels,	0	1
Influenza,	9	2
Mortification,	0	1
Old age,	6	0
Palsy,	1	0
Pleurisy,	2	0
Sore throat,	1	0
Teething,	0	1
Worms,	0	2
Syphilis,	1	0
Unknown,	3	1
Total,	39	36—75

Of the above there were:

Under 2 years 27

From 2 to 5 5

5 10 3

10 15 1

15 20 1

20 30 2

30 40 5

40 50 5

50 60 5

60 70 1

70 80 2

80 90 7

107 1

Ages unknown, 10

Total, ————75

Sept. 12.

<i>Diseases.</i>	<i>Ad.</i>	<i>Childr.</i>
Cholera morbus,	0	8
Consumption of the lungs,	4	0

Convulsions,	1	0
Decay,	1	0
Diarrhœa,	4	0
Dropsy,	1	0
Drowned,	0	1
Dysentery,	1	3
Fever,	1	0
— hectic,	1	0
— remittent,	4	0
— nervous,	1	0
Gravel,	1	0
Hives,	1	0
Influenza,	4	0
Locked jaw,	0	1
Sore throat, putrid,	0	1
Stone,	1	0
Syphilis,	1	0
Still-born,	0	4
Thrush,	0	1
Worms,	0	1
Unknown,	0	1
Total,	27	21—48

Of the above there were:

Under 2 years 10

From 2 to 5 2

5 10 2

10 20 1

20 30 6

30 40 8

40 50 1

50 60 7

60 70 3

70 80 2

80 90 0

Ages unknown, 6

Total, ————48

Sept. 19.

<i>Diseases.</i>	<i>Ad.</i>	<i>Childr.</i>
Apoplexy,	2	0
Atrophy,	0	1
Casualties,	1	0
Cholera morbus,	0	6
Consumption of the lungs,	5	0
Convulsions,	0	2
Diarrhœa,	1	0
Dropsy,	1	0
Dysentery,	0	2
Drunkenness,	2	0
Fever,	1	0
—, bilious,	1	0
—, nervous,	2	0
—, typhus,	2	1
Hooping-cough,	0	2
Inflammation of the brain,	1	0
lungs,	1	0
Influenza,	0	1
Insanity,	2	0
Jaundice,	2	0
Palsy,	1	0

Still-born,	0	4	40	50	6
Worms,	0	2	50	60	4
Disease unknown,	1	0	60	70	4
	—	—	70	80	4
Total,	26	21—47	80	90	5
<i>Of the above there were :</i>			Ages unknown		
Under 2 years 19			Total		
From 2 to 5			—68		

5	10	1
10	20	1
20	30	9
30	40	2
40	50	4
50	60	2
60	70	2
70	80	4
80	90	0
Ages unknown,		1
Total,		—47

	<i>Sept. 26.</i>	
<i>Diseases.</i>	<i>Ad.</i>	<i>Childr.</i>
Apoplexy	2	0
Atrophy,	1	1
Cholera morbus,	0	8
Cholic,	1	0
Consumption of the lungs,	8	1
Convulsions,	1	1
Decay,	1	1
Diarrhœa,	4	2
Dropsy,	1	0
Dropsy in the brain,	1	0
Drowned,	1	0
Dysentery,	3	1
Drunkenness,	2	0
Epilepsy,	1	0
Fever,	1	1
—, remittent or bilious,	2	1
—, nervous,	1	0
—, putrid,	0	1
—, typhus,	1	0
Gravel,	1	0
Hives,	0	1
Inflammation of the lungs,	1	0
—, —, —, bowels,	0	1
Infanticide,	0	1
Influenza,	4	0
Old age,	2	0
Still-born,	0	4
Ulcers,	1	0
Worms,	0	1
Fungus hæmetodes,	1	0
Total,	42	26—68

Of the above there were :

Under 2 years 26		
From 2 to 5		
5	10	0
10	20	0
20	30	8
30	40	6

Ages unknown
Total*Report of deaths, in the city of New-York, from the 22d to the 29th of August, 1807.*

Adults 27—Children 46—Total 73.

Diseases.

Apoplexy,	1
Childbed,	1
Consumption,	8
Convulsions,	8
Decay,	2
Dropsy,	2
Drowned,	1
Dysentery,	2
Bilious fever,	1
Nervous fever,	2
Typhus fever,	3
Infantile flux,	25
Inflammation of the lungs,	1
Influenza,	3
Mortification,	3
Pleurisy,	2
Sprue,	1
Still-born,	1
Teething,	1
Vomiting blood,	1
Hooping cough,	1
Worms,	3

From the 29th of August to the 5th of September.

Adults 30—Children 37—Total 67.

Diseases.

Apoplexy,	1
Cholera,	1
Consumption,	9
Convulsions,	6
Debility,	1
Decay,	3
Dropsy in the head,	2
Drowned,	2
Hectic fever,	1
Remittent fever,	1
Typhus fever,	4
Flux, infantile,	15
Hives,	2
Intemperance,	1
Influenza,	1
Inflammation of the bowels,	1
Old age,	2
Palsy,	1
Pleurisy,	1
Rupture of a blood-vessel,	1

Sprue,	3
Still-born,	1
Sudden death,	1
Suicide,	1
Teething,	2
Hooping cough,	2
Worms,	1

From the 5th to the 12th of September.

Adults 22—Children 29—Total 51.

<i>Diseases.</i>	
Apoplexy,	1
Bleeding of the navel,	1
Cholera morbus,	2
Consumption,	12
Convulsions,	2
Decay,	4
Dysentery,	2
Bilious fever,	1
Intermittent fever,	2
Typhus fever,	3
Infantile flux,	7
Hives,	3
Jaundice,	1
Inflammation of the bowels,	1
Pleurisy,	1
Sprue,	1
Syphilis,	1
Teething,	4
Vomiting and purging,	1
Hooping cough,	1

From the 12th to the 19th of September.

Adults 32—Children 36—Total 68.

<i>Diseases.</i>	
Apoplexy,	2
Cholera,	1
Consumption,	12
Convulsions,	4
Debility,	1
Decay,	4
Diarrhœa,	1
Dropsy,	3
Dropsy in the head,	2
Drowned,	1
Typhus fever,	6
Infantile flux,	15
Hives,	1
Inflammation of the lungs,	1
Inflammation of the bowels,	2
Inflammation of the brain,	1
Palsy,	1
Pleurisy,	1
Still born,	2
Sudden death,	1
Teething,	1
Hooping-cough,	2
Worms,	2

From the 19th to the 26th of September.

Adults 23—Children 28—Total 51.

Casualty*,	1
Cholera morbus,	1
Consumption,	9
Convulsions,	4
Cramp in the stomach,	1
Decay,	3
Drowned,	2
Typhus fever,	2
Flux infantile,	5
Fracture,	1
Gout,	1
Gravel,	1
Hives,	2
Jaundice,	2
Inflammation of the lungs,	2
Mortification,	1
Old age,	1
Pleurisy,	1
Scrofula,	1
Sprue,	1
Still-born,	3
Sudden death,	1
Teething,	2
Worms,	3

Interments, in the burying grounds of the city and precincts of Baltimore, during the week ending August 31, at sunrise.

Diseases.

Dropsy,	1
Accidental	3
Meazles,	1
Influenza,	1
Drowned,	1
Hooping-cough,	1
Cholera,	23
Unknown,	4
Still-born,	2
Cancer,	1
Nervous fever,	1
Fits,	1
Debility,	1
Flux,	1
Lingering,	1
Childbed,	1
Consumption,	1
Sudden death,	1

Adults 16—Children 30—Total 46.

Diseases.

Sept. 7.

Drowned,	1
Fall from a waggon,	1

* The case of casualty was that of a man found dead in the street, at the intersection of Courtland and Greenwich streets.

Dropsy,	3
Jaundice,	1
Intemperance,	1
Flux,	1
Influenza,	4
Consumption,	6
Unknown,	5
Meazles,	2
Cholera,	24
Bilious,	2
Fall from a mast,	1
Nervous fever,	1
Hooping cough,	1
Sudden death,	2
Adults 26—Children 30—Total 56.	

Diseases.	Sept. 14.
Drowned,	1
Intemperance,	1
Fits,	1
Influenza,	4
Still-born,	4
Cholera,	15
Accidental,	1
Dropsy,	1
Teething,	1
Unknown,	6
Consumption,	4
Croup,	1

Pleurisy,	1
Old age,	1
Adults 18—Children 24—Total 42.	

Diseases.	Sept. 21.
Influenza,	4
Cholera,	7
Still-born,	2
Fits,	1
Consumption,	3
Unknown,	1
Lock jaw,	1
Bilious,	3
Accidental	1
Adults 14—Children 9—Total 23.	

Diseases.	Sept. 28.
Cholera,	3
Intemperance,	2
Drowned,	1
Worms,	1
Still-born,	2
Fits,	3
Consumption,	2
Unknown,	3
From the country,	1
Cancer,	1
Debility,	1
Fever,	1
Adults 11—Children 15—Total 26.	

PRICE OF STOCKS.

Philadelphia, Oct. 1, 1807.

Eight per cent.	- - - -	101½ per cent.
Six per cent.	- - - -	98
Three per cent.	- - - -	64 to 64½
Bank United States	- - - -	120 to 121
— Pennsylvania	- - - -	130 to 131
— North America	- - - -	134 to 135
— Philadelphia	- - - -	120 to 121 div. off
— Farmers' and Mechanics'	- - - -	par
Insurance Company Pennsylvania	- - - -	164 per cent.
— North America	- - - -	92½ to 93
— Philadelphia	- - - -	160
— Union	- - - -	54 dollars for 60 paid
— Delaware	- - - -	56 do. do.
— Phoenix	- - - -	91 do. 80 paid
— Marine and Fire	- - - -	46 do. 60 paid
— United States	- - - -	26 do. 30 paid
Water Loan	- - - -	102 per cent.
City Loan	- - - -	103
Schuylkill Bridge Shares	- - - -	70
Delaware Bridge Shares	- - - -	uncertain
Lancaster Turnpike Shares	- - - -	94 per cent.
Germantown Turnpike Shares	- - - -	74
Cheltenham and Willow Grove Turnpike Shares	- - - -	80 to 81
Frankford Turnpike Shares	- - - -	74 to 75
Chesnuthill and Springhouse Tavern Turnpike Shares	- - - -	uncertain
Chesapeake and Delaware Canal Shares	- - - -	do.